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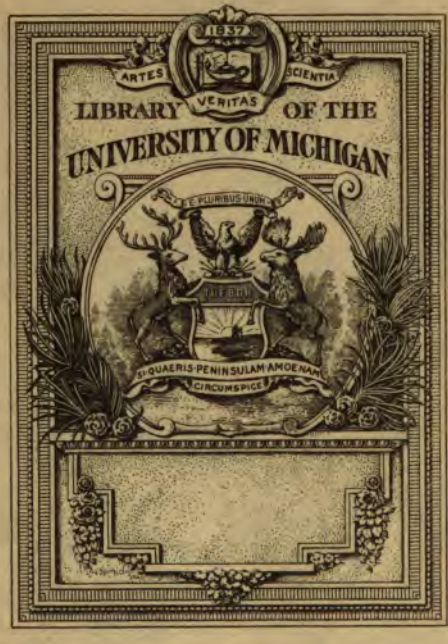
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SIXTY-FIRST

ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

62407

American Institute of Instruction

LECTURES, DISCUSSIONS, AND PROCEEDINGS

Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 7-10, 1890

Published by order of the Board of Directors

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AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

SIXTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING,

JULY 7, 8, 9, AND 10, 1890.

JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS.

FIRST DAY—Monday, July 7.

EVENING SESSION.

The American Institute of Instruction convened in the Methodist Episcopal Church, Saratoga Springs, N. Y., Monday evening, July 7, 1890.

While assembling, the Institute was entertained by an organ solo, the Gloria in G, from Mozart's Twelfth Mass, played by Mrs. Nicholas Wagman, organist of the church.

At 8 o'clock, President George A. Littlefield, of Providence, R. I., called the Institute to order.

Devotional exercises were conducted by the Rev. Joseph Cary, rector of Bethesda church, Saratoga, who read from the eighth chapter of the Book of Proverbs and offered prayer, the audience joining with him in the Lord's Prayer.

Mr. David M. Kelsey, of Saratoga, leading, and the

Temple Quartette, of Boston, assisting, the audience then sang "America."

The Temple Quartette consisted of Messrs. T. E. Johnson, first tenor; E. F. Webber, second tenor; H. A. Cook, first bass; and A. C. Ryder, second bass.

Mr. E. N. Jones, superintendent of the Saratoga public schools, welcomed the Institute:

Saratoga has the pleasure of receiving many associations,—musical, political, ministerial,—and yet no one is more cordially welcome than the two educational associations now assembled in session here: the American Institute of Instruction and the New York State Teachers' Association. Our teachers and our people most heartily greet you. It is blessed to receive. The programme presented by your distinguished President is an interesting one and it attracts us, and so we expect from you much benefit during the present meeting.

The Temple Quartette then grandly rendered Storch's march, "Now Forward." Being enthusiastically recalled, they gave the "Blue Bells of Scotland," arranged by Rhodes and adapted to the words, "Oh, where has my Highland Laddie gone?"

The Hon. Andrew S. Draper, state superintendent of the New York public schools, welcomed the Institute to the state of New York:

All the world knows the American Institute of Instruction. The fame of this organization, the oldest of its kind in the country or the world, and the zeal and intelligence of its members have long been spread abroad. New York is proud to welcome you within her borders. You come as an independent, intelligent, inspiring body of educational thinkers. The meeting of two such bodies here at the same time is no conflict, but, being accidental,—for so it was, purely so,—I deem it a happy coincidence. You coöperate with the New York association in the same field, and

we with you. At no time could you have found us engaged more fully and enthusiastically in the study of school questions. The interchange of thought in discussion and papers cannot fail to bring about, sooner or later, substantial benefits. Such meetings have point and purpose and always yield good results. All the notable and progressive acts of educational legislation in our state have been preceded and suggested by the deliberations and transactions of conventions of teachers. John Ericsson, reading the proceedings of an Albany Institute, conceived the idea of the revolving turret, which sweeps the seas and gives efficiency to the navy. We hope that your present visit will so profit you, that, after your customary session among the White Mountains or at the seashore, you will gladly return to Saratoga.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette, of Boston, then beautifully sang Storch's "Meditation," which was received with marked favor. In response to the recall, they sang "Annie Laurie."

This quartette consists of Miss Maude Nichols, first soprano; Miss Jennie Whitcomb Worcester, second soprano; Miss Elizabeth Roberts, first alto; Miss Anna Louise Whitcombe, second alto.

President Littlefield regretfully announced the absence of President Walter B. Gunnison, of the New York State Teachers' Association, who was to welcome the Institute on behalf of that Association, but who was at that moment responding to the welcome extended to his own association, and who would address the Institute on Wednesday evening.

Responding to the addresses received and to the intended address as well, President Littlefield expressed the great pleasure given the American Institute of Instruction to revisit Saratoga, and he most gratefully and sincerely reciprocated the cordial expressions of greeting. In 1880 and 1882, we were royally entertained here, and it is with great satisfaction that we come again. Under the superintendency of Judge Draper, the state of New

York is rapidly taking her place as the Empire State in matters educational. The Institute, sitting at the same time with the New York State Teachers' Association, unites with it on the Saratoga critical field as proudly as Boston and Lexington allied themselves with Saratoga and Stillwater in the triumphs of our Revolutionary contest. We extend our greetings to our fellow-teachers and our thanks to you all for your kindly welcome.

President Littlefield regretted that "that inimitable reader," Mr. Leland T. Powers, was by illness prevented from his expected appearance before the Institute. A telegram explaining the cause of his absence indicated that Mr. Powers might not be present at all. The President was, therefore, fortunate in being able to call upon one of the Institute members to fill the vacancy.

Mrs. Eugene C. Webster, of East Providence, R. I., then recited Jean Ingelow's "The Echo and the Ferry." Mrs. Webster's rendering of this poem and of her selections throughout the sessions of the Institute was such as to win the heartiest and strongest commendation. Her recitations, natural and impressive, formed an agreeable feature of nearly every session.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, of Boston, addressed the Institute on the "EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK." She was introduced by the President as one who had most grandly comprehended all the leading questions of state policy from the days of 1861 down to date and who, at the head of Woman's Work during the Civil War, was a strong ally of General Grant,—President Littlefield adding, that Mount McGregor is near Saratoga, and that under its famous eminence where General Grant spent his last hours of life, we listen to this noble woman's voice upon the most vital of living issues.

The Temple Quartette chanted Rhodes's "Remember now thy Creator." Encore: Abt's "At Early Morning."

Supt. Jones, from the Saratoga Local Committee, announced some excursion arrangements prepared for members of the Institute.

Prof. John F. Woodhull, of New York, invited the members of the Institute to an exhibit of school work by New York pupils, chiefly in the department of drawing. The exhibit was mounted in the ball-room annex of Congress Hall hotel.

Mrs. Webster recited James Whitcomb Riley's "Orphant Annie's Goblins."

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette sang Cowen's "Lady-Bird, fly away Home."

The Institute then adjourned its session until Tuesday.

After adjournment, the directors assembled in front of the platform and transacted the customary business of the meeting following the first session of the Institute. The annual assessment was fixed at one dollar for each membership. The "Volume of Proceedings," for 1890, was ordered to be mailed or delivered to each member sending the Treasurer ten cents for prepayment of postage.

SECOND DAY—TUESDAY, July 8.

MORNING SESSION.

Organ prelude, improvised by Mrs. Wagman.

At 9:40 A. M. the Institute resumed its session, President Littlefield in the chair.

Devotional exercises were conducted by the Rev.

James Eells, of Saratoga, who read from the twenty-eighth chapter of the Book of Job and offered prayer.

Mr. Kelsey leading and the Temple Quartette assisting, the audience sang the first and fifth verses of the hymn, "Nearer, my God, to Thee." The quartette alone sang the third verse with profound emotion.

President Littlefield, omitting for the moment the announcement of committees as proposed in the programme, introduced President Seth Low of Columbia College, New York city. President Low was obliged to leave Saratoga at an earlier hour than was expected.

President Low addressed the Institute in remarks "in the nature of a greeting." He greeted the Institute, thinking with gladness that all teachers of all the grades, from the lowest primary step to the highest university stage, were engaged in the same work, solving the same difficulties, animated by the same hopes. He should fail in his duty to the college he represents, were he not to express how much Columbia College is in sympathy with all your work and your aspirations. He read with interest the report of the *Boston Herald* scholarship examinations. It interested him because the same troubles are met with in New York that are encountered in New England. He was somewhat moved, when informed that the standard of the college entrance examinations is too high. He confessed that his own experience helped him in the appreciation of youthful thought; for, in a recent search among old papers, he discovered a composition of his own, written at the age of fourteen years and entitled, "A View from my Window." He illustrated the fertility of thought and felicity of expression by what the paper had to remark about the variety of scenery from his window: "There are the ships. Some are sailing out. Some are sailing in." His inference was that a youth of fourteen years might be a very poor critic of Shakespeare. He also related his experience in college. During the Freshman year he wrote a thesis on "Columbus." Aware that his distinguished compatriot, Irving, had written something about Columbus, he perused that

author very carefully. He wrote a thesis of two pages, legal cap, and he could not do better than quote Irving for about one page. He honestly marked the quotation with the proper points, but perhaps so lightly that they were overlooked. When his manuscript was returned, the professor had marked five errors in it, four of them in the quotation from Irving. He spoke of the dangers of hypercriticism. Thus, his professor objected to his calling floating seaweed a "landmark," because it was on the sea and not on the land. He wished that he could offer something better in the way of thought, but there was nothing better "in the nature of a greeting" than this,—he welcomed this Institute with all his heart.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette favored the audience with Brown's "Oh, Whisper in the Twilight."

The Temple Quartette followed with Bishop's "Hail, Smiling Morn."

President Littlefield here announced that the members of the Institute were invited to a reception this evening at Congress Hall, and to-morrow evening at the Grand Union, at 9:30 o'clock each evening, or after the evening session of the Institute.

Supt. G. C. Fisher, of Muskegon, Mich., but recently of Weymouth, Mass., addressed the Institute on "WOMAN IN EDUCATION."

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, upon invitation by the president, discussed the address and the subject at length. While she spoke eloquently for her sex, she would not have women do all the teaching, nor would she desire them to preside over institutions even for the education of girls. She fully explained woman's non-representation in German faculties.

President Littlefield made some hotel and excursion announcements at this point and then appointed the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS.

Francis Cogswell, of Cambridge, Mass.
William J. Corthell, of Gorham, Maine.
Amos Hadley, of Concord, N. H.
F. F. Barrows, of Hartford, Conn.
Dwight R. Adams, of Centreville, R. I.
Miss Ellen Hyde, of Framingham, Mass.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston, Mass.
O. W. Lord, of Portland, Maine.
D. W. Hoyt, of Providence, R. I.
J. D. Bartley, of Bridgeport, Conn.
Mrs. George A. Walton, of Newton, Mass.
Miss Mary D. Piper, of Dover, N. H.

An intermission followed.

President G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., delivered an address on "A PLEA FOR STUDYING FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS."

Mr. Ray Greene Huling, Secretary of the Institute, opened the discussion of this paper, from the standpoint of one whose experience and needs had shown him the value of studying other systems of education besides our own.

Hon. T. W. Bicknell, of Boston, showed three ways of studying foreign institutions, both by going abroad and though staying at home, and differed with Superintendent Fisher on the question of virility.

Mr. D. W. Hoyt, of Providence, a committee for that purpose, made announcement of a railroad excursion to Mount McGregor, arranged for Institute members.

President Littlefield invited the members present to assemble in front of the church, where a photographer of Saratoga was ready with his cameras to form a good impression of them.

The Institute then adjourned till evening.

SECOND DAY—EVENING SESSION.

After the organ prelude by Mrs. Nicholas Wagman, Batiste's "Offertory in A," President Littlefield, at 8 o'clock, called the Institute to order, and its session was resumed.

The Temple Quartette, of Boston, in their ever acceptable manner, rendered with delicate shadings Buck's "Lead, Kindly Light," and responded to the applause of the audience with another selection from the same composer—"In Absence."

Mrs. Eugene C. Webster recited, with her habitually telling effect, Sarah Winters Kellogg's "Story of the Second Trial."

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette, with fine harmonizing of ample volume and delicious quality of tone, gave the "Chalet Horn," in an arrangement prepared especially for this quartette, and acknowledged the favor with which it was received by singing Moir's "Nightingale."

President Bradford P. Raymond, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., addressed the Institute on "THE SCHOLARLY SPIRIT."

Hon. James W. Patterson, of New Hampshire, spoke in further discussion of this theme. He briefly traced the growth of literature and described the form best suited to instruction. He showed that the litera-

ture of the ages is the food of the scholarly spirit, which is the hope of the republic.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette: Brown's "The Lord be Merciful."

By Mrs. Eugene C. Webster: "Jud Brown's Description of 'How Ruby Played.'" [Rubinstein.]

The Temple Quartette: Genée's "Italian Salad."

The Institute adjourned.

The members proceeded to the parlors of hotel Congress Hall, where the proprietors had tendered them a reception of a social nature and where during the reunion Freeman's Orchestra furnished excellent musical entertainment.

The Institute quartettes reciprocated the courtesy by contributing the following numbers to the evening's programme:

Ladies' Schubert Quartette: "The Merry Skylark," "The Old Oaken Bucket."

Temple Quartette: "Breeze of the Night," by Lamotte; "Humpty Dumpty," by Caldecott.

THIRD DAY—Wednesday, July 9.

MORNING SESSION.

Before the session of the Institute was resumed, Mrs. Nicholas Wagman played on the organ Batiste's "Elevation in B Flat."

President Littlefield, at 9:45, called to order.

The Rev. Eugene C. Webster, of East Providence, R. I., conducted the devotional exercises, reading the fifth chapter of St. John's First Epistle and offering prayer.

The audience, under Mr. Kelsey's leadership and with the assistance of the two quartettes, sang the "Italian Hymn."

The Temple and Ladies' Schubert Quartettes, combined as a double mixed quartette, sang three of Mendelssohn's four-part songs: "Oh, Fly with Me," "The Hoar Frost," and "Over the Grave." This double quartette was a very successful impromptu variation of the musical feature of the Institute, and its subsequent reappearance was a graceful recognition of the popularity it at once enjoyed.

Principal J. C. Greenough, of the normal school at Westfield, Mass., read an address on "THE ESSENTIALS OF GOOD TEACHING."

Mr. Joseph E. Mowry, principal of the Federal-street school, Providence, R. I., discussed the subject. He remarked upon one's changed opinion, as the vocation of teaching is expected to accomplish higher and higher things, and established as three essentials of good teaching: knowledge of the subject, proper estimate of the child, and versatility or adaptedness.

President Littlefield gave notice of a meeting of the Committee on Nominations after adjournment, of a collection to be taken in the evening, and of the reception at the Grand Union after the evening session. He also desired members to become members of the New York Teachers' Association, to which they were eligible and which had already been advised to show this Institute the corresponding courtesy.

Intermission.

Superintendent Edwin P. Seaver, of the Boston public schools, addressed the Institute on "THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS."

Hon. Thomas B. Stockwell, commissioner of Rhode Island public schools, in opening the discussion, remarked upon the threefold division of this subject, to which the preceding speaker, subsequent speakers, and he himself addressed themselves. He would develop a professional spirit and proposed three ways of development.

Dr. Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Conn., followed. He was a witness of the whole history of professional training for teachers in America and contrasted the then and the now. He argued for trained superintendency.

Mr. Joseph E. Mowry, of Providence, was called upon to continue his discussion of the morning, or to add any new points. He perceived that these advocates of the normal training were not themselves thus trained. He believed himself hired to teach; but, by good teaching, worthy character was produced.

Principal Greenough did not believe that universities could accomplish this work, which was in a different line from theirs, not an extension of instruction, as in law or medicine.

The Rev. G. Lewis Pratt, of Tivoli-on-the-Hudson, said that the workman is made by working.

Principal Corthell rejoined that many are spoiled by the process, too. He argued for chairs of pedagogy in the university, that its influence may be with us. The old nineteenth century will get out of the way none too soon; but he preferred to be making the twentieth century.

President Hall declined to discuss the paper. The work proposed at Clark University is to train superintendents, not teachers.

Principal Channing Stebbins, of Brooklyn, thought that the normal school has no mystery which a good teacher has n't, and thorough knowledge assures good teaching.

Mr. George A. Bacon, of Boston, editor of the "Academy," had seen teachers in England who could teach him and yet could not do half so much work with a class. Superintendents need to be qualified and to be appointed on the ground of fitness.

President Littlefield gave notice of some railroad excursions.

Adjourned till evening.

THIRD DAY—Evening Session.

Mrs. Nicholas Wagman played, as organ prelude, Wagner's "Wedding Chorus" from Tannhäuser.

At 7:45, President Littlefield occupied the chair, and the Institute session was resumed.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette sang Mohring's "Legende" and, in response to an encore, Ray's "I long for thee."

The Rev. John Matteson, of Providence, felicitously read "Bells of Lynn" and, being recalled, favored the Institute with Will Carleton's ballad, "Farmer Stebbin's Toboggan."

The Temple Quartette sang Dudley Buck's "Star of Love" and acknowledged the request for more by giving Daber's "Cannibal Idyl."

President Walter B. Gunnison, of the New York State Teachers' Association, who was announced in the programme to make a speech of welcome to the Institute on Monday evening, was now introduced by President Littlefield. He said:

I am glad to be here, though it seems a sort of Gallicism to welcome the parting guest. At probably the very moment, when by your programme I was to speak the welcome of New York Teachers greeting the American Institute of Instruction, I was myself responding in the name of New York Teachers to an address welcoming them to this same village and for the same object for which you have met. My arduous duties have detained me until now. I come to bring you as my message, that the New York Teachers have felt strengthened in their deliberations and expressions by your presence here. Your president has introduced me as president. That announcement seems strange, in view of what has taken place this afternoon: I am an "*Ilium fuit.*" Still, I bear you a resolution of greeting. With all the conventions entertained at Saratoga,—and their name is legion,—it rarely happens that two bodies meet during the same days, both bodies being of the same kind. Were the two bodies the Republican and Democratic conventions, or the Presbyterian and Baptist denominations, the president of one would hardly feel at home on the platform of the other. At least, there would not prevail the same accord as between our associations. We are not only the same kind of bodies, but we are in unison. We are all members of one army, belonging only to different brigades or army corps. I not only bid you welcome to our state, but I wish you God speed in all your labors.

President Littlefield gave notice of the reception at the Grand Union by courtesy of the proprietors, at the close of the evening session.

Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston, addressed the Institute on "THE NEXT STEP IN NORMAL WORK." Before proceeding with his address, he said,

in allusion to the president's introduction of him and to the "lively brush" of the morning debate, that no convention is good without a riot; Horace Mann had said that the best way to disperse a mob, in his day, was to propose holding an educational discussion. Times change.

The discussion was opened by Dr. James M. Milne, of the Oneonta Normal School, N. Y., who was called upon to supply the place of State Superintendent Draper. He preferred the normal college to the university department plan, because there must be experimental work, practice of the art, to acquire the power of control. New York is proud to be ahead of the state of Horace Mann.

Admiral P. Stone, LL.D., of Massachusetts, continued. The Normal idea should be extended. The pyramids are done, but the world is n't finished. Our college graduates need normal training to do their best work, and our high school principals call for just such trained assistance.

Secretary Huling contributed a passage of the history of this movement, to show that the universities have somewhat changed front within a recent period, if they now propose to make the normal work one of their courses.

Superintendent Seaver wished to put the Institute on its guard against supposing that a great university had definitely committed itself against a normal department. The discussion was really a conversation, and the plan was new. The colleges will do this work, and they can do it best.

Hon. James W. Patterson, of New Hampshire, did not look to the colleges for a revival of teaching. The

colleges are too poor, and they are not yet up to this idea. Let the state provide a normal college, and the colleges may do the same, as public sentiment demands it and supplies the means.

Principal Greenough, of Westfield, Mass., quoted the experiment at Wellesley as against the department plan, and the opinions of ex-President (Mrs.) Palmer of Wellesley and President Seelye of Smith, both thinking that colleges cannot do this professional work.

Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell read letters from Mrs. Freeman-Palmer formerly president, and Miss Helen A. Shafer now president, of Wellesley college, Mass. He then closed the debate. The letters and the concluding remarks were to the effect that the normal department within a university is impracticable. The most roseate view of it is as an experiment. The experiment would fail if tried; and there was little to assure us that it would be tried.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette sang Berrell's "Our Father."

The Rev. John Matteson read a humorous selection called "The Debating Society."

A collection was taken up, Messrs. Fisher, Greenough, Small, Whittemore, Hill, and Hadley passing the boxes. During the taking of the collection, the Temple Quartette sang Genée's "Carnival of Venice."

Adjourned.

A pleasant reception at the Grand Union followed, where Lothian's Boston Theatre orchestra and the two Institute quartettes discoursed sweet music.

FOURTH DAY—THURSDAY, July 10.

MORNING SESSION.

Before the morning session, Mrs. Nicholas Wagman played with fine taste and expression—as at all the sessions—Chopin's "Prelude in D Flat." Though not heard to so good advantage as if the audience had been all seated, Mrs. Wagman's selections and interpretations have been of classic quality and highly appreciated by those who have heard them.

At 9:40, President Littlefield rapped to order.

The Rev. John Matteson, of Providence, R. I., led the devotional exercises of the Institute, reading the twenty-first chapter of the Revelation and offering prayer.

The audience, led by Mr. Kelsey, with the assistance of the double quartette—the Temple and the Ladies' Schubert—sang "Old Hundred."

The double quartette then rendered Mendelssohn's "Resting Place."

Professor William North Rice, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., delivered an address upon "THE PLACE of NATURAL SCIENCE IN THE EDUCATIONAL COURSE."

Principal D. W. Hoyt, of the Providence high school, R. I., opened the consideration of the address. He took no exception, but defined "place of natural science," etc., as meaning,—(1) what natural science accomplishes in the education of the child—what its "place," or function; (2) at what point and for what period it should play a part in his education—what its "place," or grade. He would put it all along the

line and use it for a distinctive cultivation of the mental faculties, as well as for the imparting of useful knowledge.

Professor Rice closed the discussion. He had written more than he had read. The points made by Mr. Hoyt, his paper had actually discussed. Science training should prevail during the whole school course, and this matter is more important than that of the particular sciences. Botany and zoölogy could come in earlier than mineralogy and geology, so far as depends upon the apprehension of all the characteristics of specimens by the child. Science is in time and method adaptable to the child mind.

Superintendent E. P. Seaver, of Boston, asked if the difficulty of obtaining specimens in cities had been considered and recounted the chief difficulties.

Professor Rice thought the Boston plan of supplying specimens by contract and the plan of Saturday excursions to the suburbs very practicable.

Intermission.

Mrs. Eugene C. Webster, of East Providence, R. I., recited a humorous selection, "The Adventures of a Little Girl at a Summer Hotel."

Principal John Tetlow, of the Girl's Latin and High Schools, Boston, Mass., read an address on "SCHOOL INSTRUCTION IN MORALS AND MANNERS."

Principal William F. Bradbury, of the Cambridge Latin School, Mass., presented the subject in an address embodying his observation and experience and rather enlarging upon the theme than diverging from the preceding speaker.

President Littlefield gave the usual notices of excursions and things to come.

The President then announced that the topic, "THE NEXT STEP IN NORMAL WORK," was in order for discussion.

Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston, Mass., presented a resolution on PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR HIGHER GRADES OF TEACHERS. This resolution appears later in this JOURNAL as adopted.

Prof. John F. Woodhull, of the New York College for the Training of Teachers, in support of this resolution, sketched the early history of the institution of the normal college at Albany. There was a demand for teachers prepared to teach in the normal schools. A circular was sent out. In the next few months six or eight teachers for normal schools and other special schools were prepared. The work of the normal college consisted of,—(1) a course in the philosophy of educational methods; (2) the practical working of these methods; (3) practice-teaching in the high school and observation of the process of teaching in primary classes. There is a demand for such colleges all over the country. The institution at Albany meets this demand. Martha's Vineyard Summer School has started a department of methods. College graduates are beginning to feel the need of further preparation. Some college graduates come out, take a position, and never rise. Others rise rapidly. This higher training-school must be established. It should make no difference with us who was first in the field. Let us have the good sense to carry out and develop this idea, since it meets a demand.

Principal Tetlow, of Boston, favored the resolution. He was active before the Massachusetts legislature, to secure the establishment of such a school in Boston.

It failed through the antagonism of the very people on whom we at first counted to support it: the representatives of colleges and normal schools. The college representatives hoped that the college would furnish all facilities. The representatives of normal schools thought that the normal schools furnished or would furnish all needed training. Any system fails which does not call into service expert high school teachers. He disbelieved that the primary school is the place to acquire skill for high school work. That is not a business-like plan. Rather, take a class of teachers, ten or twelve college graduates, wishing to prepare to teach English literature, and have them visit high school classes and then exemplify the work, and the result would be tangible. If the philosophy of teaching could be taught to college graduates, let it be so. Such a scheme was prepared and submitted by high school men, and it was defeated by the intermeddling of college representatives. It is now incumbent on the opposition to propose a better scheme. He would coöperate with others in favor of any good scheme, in the hope of obtaining at last a really good one, which must embody philosophical teaching and high school practice.

Principal Hoyt, of Providence, doubted if the Institute were prepared to adopt this resolution. We are not Massachusetts nor New York.

Superintendent Seaver, of Boston, moved the reference of this resolution to the Committee on Resolutions already appointed.

Mr. Bicknell, of Boston, said this matter was not confined to Massachusetts or New York. The resolution specifies that such instruction should be fur-

nished, and by the state. Further, Massachusetts never legislates simply for Massachusetts, and she has never closed her gates against any new-comers from other states. This school would not be solely for the benefit of Massachusetts students. No state lines are drawn. The resolution has no local significance. The matter in Massachusetts is not, as has been implied, in a state of defeat; but it is tabled for future action. More time is needed. I never get whipped, only delayed. The Normal Council has approved this measure by resolution. We don't want the colleges to be dogs-in-the-manger; but we will bid them "God-speed," if they will establish a normal department. We want, however, a state normal college. We shall push it.

Superintendent Seaver, of Boston, would occupy but a minute. The resolution plainly shows one particular plan as its motive. He solemnly protested against any intimation that a certain college, named or not, by president or not, is a dog-in-the-manger. This matter is new, was but recently broached. The conversation quoted at this Institute was not a final, deliberate judgment of those represented in it. I cannot hope that the resolution will be amended so as to embody my views. I do not wish it. The time is too early for resolutions specially framed.

Principal Tetlow, of Boston, said that, speaking unpremeditatedly, he may have made remarks that led to this discussion. I agree that this Institute should act deliberately, and trust that this resolution will be referred and reframed so as to recognize any proper plan.

Principal Hoyt, of Providence, asked how, if this

school were not one for Massachusetts, other states are to be benefited.

It was then voted to refer the resolution to the Committee on Resolutions. Mr. Bicknell was chairman of that committee.

The Committee on Nominations, through its chairman, Superintendent Francis Cogswell, of Cambridge, Mass., reported a list of nominations for President, Secretary, Treasurer, Assistant Secretary, Assistant Treasurer, Vice-Presidents, and Counsellors.

He called attention to the fact that the constitution provides for only twelve Counsellors, and it was therefore necessary to transfer some Counsellors to the list of Vice-Presidents, for whom there was no limit. A place was also reserved among the Counsellors for President Littlefield, as it has become the custom to place the retiring President in that list. A few changes were made on account of changed residence. A few additional names were proposed.

The President stated that election must be by ballot.

Principal William J. Corthell, of Gorham, Me., moved that the chairman of the Committee on Nominations cast the ballot of the Institute for the officers nominated.

The motion prevailed.

Mr. Cogswell cast a ballot for the officers nominated, and they were declared elected, as follows:

OFFICERS ELECTED FOR 1890–'91.

President—Ray Greene Huling, New Bedford, Mass.
Secretary—Augustus D. Small, Boston, Mass.
Treasurer—James W. Webster, Malden, Mass.
Assistant Secretary—Herbert H. Bates, Cambridge, Mass.
Assistant Treasurer—Henry Whittemore, Waltham, Mass.

Vice-Presidents—MAINE.

W. J. Corthell, Gorham.
A. M. Edwards, Lewiston.
H. M. Estabrook, Gorham.
G. B. Files, Augusta.
R. E. Gould, Biddeford.
James H. Hanson, Waterville.
Mary E. Hughes, Castine.
L. G. Jordan, Lewiston.
O. W. Lord, Portland.
G. C. Purrington, Farmington.
A. F. Richardson, Castine.
E. P. Sampson, Saco.
N. A. Sargent, Hebron.
Albion W. Small, Waterville.
C. A. Wardwell, Bath.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

William E. Buck, Manchester.
C. H. Clark, Kingston.
Channing Folsom, Dover.
Amos Hadley, Concord.
L. S. Hastings, Claremont.
John K. Lord, Hanover.
D. G. Miller, Meriden.
Charles H. Morss, Portsmouth.
John Pickard, "
Charles C. Rounds, Plymouth.
L. J. Rundlett, Concord.
O. S. Williams, Nashua.
J. H. Willoughby, "

VERMONT.

M. H. Buckham, Burlington.
A. H. Campbell, Johnson.
Edward Conant, Randolph.
Joseph A. Deboer, Montpelier.
A. L. Hardy, St. Johnsbury.
S. W. Landon, Burlington.
Edwin F. Palmer, Waterbury.

MASSACHUSETTS.

George I. Aldrich, Quincy.
Sarah J. Baker, Boston.
Thomas M. Balliet, Springfield.
Thomas H. Barnes, Boston.
Thomas W. Bicknell, "
James F. Blackinton, "
Albert G. Boyden, Bridgewater.
William F. Bradbury, Cambridge.
O. B. Bruce, Lynn.
I. N. Carleton, Bradford.
W. A. Clark, Jr., Lynn.
Francis Cogswell, Cambridge.
O. W. Cook, Swampscott.
M. Grant Daniell, Boston.
Justus Dartt, Whately.
E. H. Davis, Chelsea.
John W. Dickinson, Newton.
Larkin Dunton, Boston.
S. T. Dutton, Brookline.
W. E. Eaton, Reading.
Joseph G. Edgerly, Fitchburg.
A. W. Edson, Worcester.
Thomas Emerson, Newton.
Geo. T. Fletcher, Northampton.
Homer T. Fuller, Worcester.
Arthur L. Goodrich, Salem.
E. J. Goodwin, Newton.
J. C. Greenough, Westfield.

D. B. Hagar, Salem.
H. C. Hardon, Newton.
William E. Hatch, New Bedford.
Charles W. Hill, Boston.
Jeremiah M. Hill, Bangor.
Eli A. Hubbard, Hatfield.
Ellen Hyde, Framingham.
Daniel W. Jones, Boston.
Charles F. King, "
John Kneeland, "
George H. Martin, Lynn.
Samuel W. Mason, Chelsea.
A. D. Mayo, Boston.
Robert C. Metcalf, Boston.
A. E. Nolan, Fitchburg.
John O. Norris, Melrose.
Hiram Orcutt, Boston.
James A. Page, Boston.
Chas. W. Parmenter, Cambridge.
Alvin F. Pease, Northampton.
John T. Prince, Waltham.
W. A. Robinson, Boston.
Charles P. Rugg, New Bedford.
E. D. Russell, Waltham.
Edwin P. Seaver, Newton.
William E. Sheldon, "
E. P. Sherburne, Brookline.
Elbridge Smith, Boston.
G. A. Southworth, Somerville.
A. P. Stone, Springfield.
E. Norris Sullivan, Boston.
John Tetlow, "
W. W. Waterman, Clinton.
A. E. Winship, Somerville.

RHODE ISLAND.

W. N. Ackley, Narragansett Pier.
Dwight R. Adams, Centreville.
E. B. Andrews, Providence.
George E. Church, "
Sarah E. Doyle, "
Albert Harkness, "
E. H. Howard, "
D. W. Hoyt, "
Daniel Leach, "
H. M. Maxon, Pawtucket.
L. H. Meader, Providence.
Joseph E. Mowry, "
J. M. Nye, Phenix.
William T. Peck, Providence.
Levi W. Russell, "
John P. Sanborn, Newport.
James N. Sawin, Providence.
Thomas B. Stockwell, "
Horace S. Tarbell, "
W. E. Wilson, "

CONNECTICUT.

C. L. Ames, Plantsville.
Henry Barnard, Hartford.
F. F. Barrows, "
J. D. Bartley, Bridgeport.
N. L. Bishop, Norwich.
D. N. Camp, New Britain.
L. L. Camp, New Haven.
C. F. D. Carroll, "
Ella A. Fanning, Norwich.
J. A. Graves, Hartford.
H. M. Harrington, Bridgeport.
C. D. Hine, Hartford.
Dwight Holbrook, Clinton.
Charles Northend, New Britain.
B. G. Northrup, Clinton.
Henry D. Simmons, Bridgeport.
W. I. Twitchell, Hartford.

ELSEWHERE.

George J. Cummings, Washington, D. C.
John Eaton, Marietta, O.
William T. Harris, Washington, D. C.
W. S. Montgomery, Washington, D. C.
Thomas J. Morgan, Washington, D. C.
George Crosby Smith, Carmel, N. Y.
H. P. Warren, Albany, N. Y.

COUNSELLORS.

James S. Barrell, Cambridge, Mass.
J. Milton Hall, Providence, R. I.
Frank A. Hill, Cambridge, Mass.
William H. Lambert, Fall River, Mass.
George A. Littlefield, Providence, R. I.
A. J. Manchester, Providence, R. I.
Albert P. Marble, Worcester, Mass.
William A. Mowry, Boston, Mass.
James W. Patterson, Hanover, N. H.
E. R. Ruggles, Hanover, N. H.
Benjamin F. Tweed, Cambridge, Mass.
George A. Walton, Newton, Mass.

Principal William J. Corthell, of Gorham, Maine, of the Committee on Necrology, said, that, in consequence of the enforced absence of the chairman and the third member of the committee, he was left alone to make the annual report. His committee had not availed itself of the privilege to report in print, but he would ask that the report might be made in print. It would be read in the volume of proceedings. The members deceased during the year were Prof. W. P. Atkinson, Rev. J. P. Cowles, and D. P. Galloupe.

Mr. Corthell moved that the report on necrology be accepted in manuscript and be printed for the use of the Institute, if the Committee of Arrangements think best.

The motion prevailed.

The question on the adoption of the report was then carried, the Institute at the President's request expressing this sense by a rising vote.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.

Prof. William Parsons Atkinson.

William Parsons Atkinson, the son of Amos Atkinson, a Boston merchant, was born in Boston, August 12, 1817. He graduated at Harvard University with honors, in the class of 1838. He married, June 20, 1843, Miss Sarah Cabot Parkman, daughter of Rev. Francis Parkman, D. D., a Unitarian minister in Boston. He took a very early interest in the anti-slavery cause and was an active worker for many years when that great agitation was a cause of obloquy and disesteem. He was preëminently a successful teacher, having taught for fifty years with marked results. He implanted in the minds of his pupils a fine taste for literature and a love for what was true and noble in character.

For several years he had private schools successively in Boston, Cambridge, and Brookline. When the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was founded, he became connected with it as professor of English and history and for many years was also the only instructor in political science and philosophy. He was one of the first among professional teachers to appreciate the essential truth and large importance of the educational ideas underlying the scheme of instruction at the newly established school, and, though his own tastes and early associations might have naturally led him to cling to the old system of a purely classical training, he gave his time and devoted his energies to the advancement of the new scheme of technical education with a generous readiness and devotion that insured success.

During his twenty-five years of faithful service at the Institute of Technology, more than three thousand young men and women must have come under his teaching, on each of whom he must have left the impress, to a greater or less extent, of his own high character. At the time of his death he was the senior member of the faculty in age and, with one exception, in appointment. Though entirely devoted to the interests of the school, spending

a large portion of his life among books in literary and teaching work, he gave much time and labor to other causes and, by his sincerity and integrity of purpose and pure and unselfish disposition, exerted an important and a beneficent influence upon those with whom he labored. He was often called upon to deliver public lectures and addresses, several of which have been published.

He was for many years an active member of the American Institute of Instruction, lecturing before it in 1865, and in 1866 and for many successive years was elected one of its vice-presidents. He died at Jamaica Plain, where he had resided for many years, March 10, 1890, his wife and two children surviving him.

Rev. John Phelps Cowles.

John Phelps Cowles, son of Samuel and Olive (Phelps) Cowles, was born in Colebrook, Conn., January 21, 1805. He entered Yale college in 1821 and graduated at the head of his class in 1826. He studied theology in the Yale Divinity School, under Dr. Taylor, and remained in New Haven after graduating and assisted in the preparation of Webster's Dictionary. He was licensed to preach in June, 1832, and was ordained pastor of the Congregational church in Princeton, Mass., June 18, 1833. He resigned this position December 18, 1834, and went to Oberlin, Ohio, with his brother Henry, soon after Oberlin college was established, and in February, 1836, was appointed to the professorship of the languages and literature of the Old Testament in that institution. He was married, October 16, 1838, to Eunice Caldwell, of Ipswich, Mass. In October, 1839, he resigned his position in Oberlin college and in March, 1840, was appointed principal of an academy in Elyria, Ohio. Resigning there in April, 1844, he, with his wife, assumed the charge of the Ipswich (Mass.) Female Seminary, where he remained until over seventy years of age, in full and active work, though blind the last twenty years. He lost his eye-sight in 1855, but retained the possession of all his other faculties until near the time of his death, which occurred from heart failure, March 11, 1890, at Ipswich, Mass.

He was a patient, conscientious teacher, and did much to advance the higher education of women, giving to many of those whom his reputation for scholarship drew around him the equivalent of the best part of a college education, long before a college for women was established.

He was interested in the work of the American Institute of Instruction, attending its meetings when practicable, and, in 1850, lectured at its annual meeting. During his thirty-five years of darkness, his calm fortitude and untiring patience were silent but efficient lessons, which have become a precious legacy to his widow, his four surviving children, and many friends.

DANIEL P. GALLOUPE.

Daniel P. Galloupe was born in Topsfield, Mass., January 20, 1807. He commenced teaching in his native town when quite young, and his success led him to follow the business most of his life, or until age and inability compelled him to retire from the profession. He was for some years a teacher in Salem, Mass., and, in 1853, became principal of the Varnum grammar-school at Lowell, Mass. He remained in this position twenty-five years, resigning in 1878 on account of advancing age. He was then superintendent of the Dracut schools for three years and, in 1881 and 1882, was a valuable member of the school board of Lowell. The superintendent of schools of that city, Geo. F. Lawton, Esq., writes:

"I knew Mr. Galloupe very well. His life as master of the Varnum grammar-school in this city, and subsequently during his partial retirement from active work, was an exceptionally peaceful and uneventful one. Notwithstanding, it was an exceedingly useful life. In the school sense he was eminently successful. After so long a service he was, of course, widely known in Lowell, and he was universally revered. There never was a word uttered to his discredit, I verily believe, in all his long residence here. His career must have been happy."

Mr. Galloupe was a member of the American Institute of Instruction and for many years one of its Board of Counsellors. In 1844, at Pittsfield, he lectured before the Institute upon "The Dangers of Teachers." After a long illness, he died at his residence at Lowell, May 4, 1890, at the age of eighty-three. He left a widow, but no children.

D. N. CAMP,
W. J. CORTHELL,
JAMES A. PAGE,
Committee on Necrology.

Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston, Mass., chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, reported a series of resolutions, as follows: Of appreciation and thanks; on Federal aid to education; on manual and scientific instruction; on temperance instruction; on the National Bureau of Education; on an educational exposition and congress at Chicago; and on coeducation.

It was voted to consider the resolutions separately, and they were severally adopted,—that on coeducation by a vote of 16 to 13, and the others unanimously.

The vote on the resolution on coeducation was then doubted. That resolution read as follows:

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction is in hearty accord with the principle of coeducation, from the primary school through university education, and that every step taken in the direction of its universal application is a nearer approach to the true, natural, and normal conditions of physical, mental, and moral education.

Hon. Thomas B. Stockwell, of Rhode Island, moved to reconsider the vote adopting this resolution. He had voted in favor of coeducation, but did not think that the small majority of three, considering the number of members of the Institute, was enough to say that the vote represented the sentiments of the Institute.

Mr. Bicknell thought that we should take a stand on this question, should not belong to the dead past, but should be alive. The majority vote only gives an endorsement to a great movement.

Dr. Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Conn., favored coeducation, but thought a vote should be estimated by the number voting and the number of members.

Twenty-odd votes should not be said to represent the Institute. He would not condemn Wellesley by any sweeping resolution.

Mr. Charles W. Hill, of Boston, Mass., for the first time in his life rose to speak in this Institute. He thought that circumstances differ: under some circumstances he would favor coeducation; under others, he would not. The resolution was too sweeping.

Mr. Stockwell recalled a resolution once adopted in Brooklyn and afterwards used as a whip to secure legislation. It would be unjust to quote this resolution as the voice of the Institute.

Mr. William J. Corthell, of Gorham, Me., had just come from a fight in the board of trustees of his alma mater, where coeducation has been established some years; and yet it is found that there is a difficulty in bringing boys and girls of college age into competition. He seconded reconsideration.

Supt. Gilman C. Fisher, of Weymouth, Mass., thought that this is not an Institute question, but is one of a social character and of general civilization. Coeducation may not be, under all circumstances, desirable.

Mr. Bicknell said that the resolution favored the general principle of coeducation.

Reconsideration was ordered; and then, by a strong majority, the resolution was tabled.

The following are the resolutions adopted:

I. Appreciation and Thanks.

Resolved, That we cordially appreciate the facilities afforded the American Institute of Instruction for holding its Sixty-first Annual Meeting at Saratoga, and consider it a happy coincidence

that we have met our co-workers of the Empire State on grounds of friendship and common interest; that our hearty thanks are hereby tendered,—first, to the Local Committee for their thoughtful arrangements for our reception and comfort; secondly, to the railroads, hotels, and boarding-houses for generous reductions from regular rates; thirdly, to the Trustees of the Methodist church for the use of their fine edifice for our sessions; fourthly, to the proprietors of the Hathorne, Patterson, Royal, and Washington springs for free draughts of their waters, which we realize are something more than the cup of cold water which the Scriptures admonish us to give; fifthly, to the representatives of the local and Associated Press for reports of our proceedings; sixthly, to the various speakers for their earnest, thoughtful, and inspiring words; seventhly, to the Schubert and Temple Quartettes and to Mrs. Eugene C. Webster for their charming additions to the attraction of our sessions, and to all officers and others who, by special efforts, have contributed to the value and success of this meeting.

II. Federal Aid to Education.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Institute the government of the United States should adopt such measures properly coming within the scope of its constitutional powers, as are calculated to encourage and promote popular education and at the same time foster the local support of the schools.

III. Manual and Scientific Instruction.

Resolved, That this Institute desires to place upon record its approval of the general movement to secure Manual Training in the schools; and, also, of that which aims to secure greater attention to the teaching of the various branches of Natural and Physical Science, and the use of better methods in teaching these branches.

IV. Temperance Instruction.

Resolved, That the cause of temperance has no truer supporters and allies than the teachers of our common schools, and that as teachers and citizens we will put forth the most earnest efforts to teach and influence our youth to lead lives of temperance, virtue, and patriotism.

V. National Bureau of Education and Commissioner.

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction is in full accord with the general purposes and work of the National Bureau of Education at Washington, and that it finds occasion for congratulation in the selection by President Harrison of Hon. William T. Harris, LL. D., as the United States Commissioner of Education.

VI. Educational Exposition and Congress.

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction most cordially approves the national celebration of the Four Hundredth Anniversary of the Discovery of America by a great international exposition at Chicago, and it earnestly commends to the proper authorities an Educational Department or Exhibition, in and through which our educational systems may be properly made known to the country and the world. The Institute also suggests and would respectfully recommend to the Commissioner of Education, Hon. William T. Harris, LL.D., the convening of an International Congress of Education at Chicago, for the purposes of international educational comity during the session of that Exposition.

[For Resolution VII, see evening session.]

Adjournment.

FOURTH DAY—Thursday, July 10.

EVENING SESSION.

The preludes to the final session of the Institute consisted of—

Piano solo. Raff's "La Falaise," by Miss Rhoda McLeran.

Organ solo. March, "Clarence Eddy," by Mrs. Nicholas Wagman.

Piano solo. Chopin's "Waltz in A flat," by Miss Rhoda McLeran.

At 7:45 the Institute resumed its session, President Littlefield in the chair.

The Temple Quartette sang Buck's "Hark, the Trumpet," and on recall DeKoven's "Owl and Pussy Cat."

The Rev. John Matteson recited a scene from the "Midsummer Night's Dream."

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette sang Sodermann's "Wedding March" and, in response to an encore, "Massa's in the cold, cold ground."

Mrs. Eugene C. Webster recited the "Story of the Bells," with carillon and accompaniment on the organ played by Mr. Rankin, of the *Saratogian* editorial staff. The recitation, in itself effective, was charmingly accompanied. Being recalled, Mrs. Webster recited a sketch of the Harvard-Yale regatta, entitled "The Crimson and the Blue."

President E. Benjamin Andrews, of Brown University, Providence, R. I., delivered an address on "PATRIOTISM AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS."

The double quartette—Temple and Ladies' Schubert combined—sang Eichberg's "To thee, O Country," with grand effect, and responded to an enthusiastic demand by repeating the last stanza.

Hon. John W. Davis, Governor of Rhode Island, was present as a friend of public education and addressed the Institute on "PUBLIC EDUCATION."

Following these addresses, brief speeches by members of the Institute treated of the topic of the evening.

Principal Arthur L. Goodrich, of the Salem high school, Mass., related his experience, to show the popular lack of appreciation of the science of government.

Hon. James W. Patterson, of New Hampshire, criticized the tendency to belittle and berate, to accuse public men, and fill our papers with corrupting sensations, and said that the excellences of our country should be set forth. Punish crime, but praise the nation's defenders, and set our banner on high. Our country's growth, resources, and future furnish the teacher with a lesson of patriotism. Gettysburg is grander than Waterloo. Our desert irrigated could feed all Europe.

President Littlefield gave customary notices.

Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston, Mass., reported from the Committee on Resolutions the following resolve, which was adopted by the Institute:

VII. Professional Training for Higher Grades of Teachers.

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction, while recognizing the great value of the present normal schools as agencies for the training of teachers for our common schools, also recognizes the necessity of some suitable and efficient provision for the professional training of college graduates and others of an equivalent liberal education, for the positions of high school and normal school teachers and school superintendents. It also welcomes all agencies which may be put into operation for the improvement of the common schools and the larger professional training of teachers.

The Temple Quartette sang Kinkel's "Soldier's Farewell" and, being encored, Caldecott's "Little Jack Horner;" and, another appearance being demanded by the audience, they gave Dr. Arne's "Which is the properest Day to drink?"

The Rev. John Matteson gave a humorous recitation, "Ike Partington after the Opera," which was

so effectively done that the audience requested another, and "A New Hampshire Woman's Call to her three Daughters" was entertainingly rendered.

The Ladies' Schubert Quartette delighted the Institute with Abt's "Ave Maria" and were recalled, when they sang Gounod's "Baby, sleep."

The induction of the president-elect, Mr. Ray Greene Huling, into office by the retiring president, Mr. George A. Littlefield, was, as customarily, the concluding feature of this session of the Institute.

As Mr. Littlefield transferred the gavel of authority, he accompanied the act with the following felicitous remarks:

It gives me great pleasure, Mr. Huling, to surrender this honorable gavel to you, to one whom I know from most agreeable official association to be so well qualified to receive it. The members of the Institute are to be congratulated upon their fortunate opportunity to make choice of you as president, and you are to be congratulated upon your election to so distinguished an office as the chief magistracy of the oldest teachers' association in the world. The position is full of honor, and also of cares, of labors, and of responsibilities; but its every interest is safe in your hands. My best and only necessary wish for you and for the venerable Institute is that your administration may be characterized by the same eminent ability that has marked the conduct of the various educational offices that you have so creditably filled.

After thanking Mr. Littlefield for the good opinion of him so kindly expressed, Mr. Huling said:

Ladies and gentlemen of the Institute, I find it far from easy to choose fitting words by which to express my thanks for the honor you have done me in making me the president of this body. When I recall the names of my predecessors in office, I recognize that it is indeed an honor to be even the last and the least to occupy the chair in which once sat a Wayland, an Emerson, and a Phil-

brick. It was but once my privilege to look upon the face of Wayland, and then it lay in the pale repose of the last sleep. Even thus those massive features told plainly the story of his manly energy and broad intellectual power. What a grand leader the Institute chose for its first standard-bearer, and how completely did his educational career approve the wisdom of his selection! In their own way, many of his successors—some now living, and others among the dead—nobly served their day and generation. Yes, those who best know the history of the Institute can best appreciate the high honor which accompanies an election to the presidency of this organization. I have no hesitation in declaring that I am glad to be your choice to-day.

And one strong reason of my gladness is the fact that this election registers *your* choice, and not that of the one chosen or of any group of schemers at his instigation. Rumor has it that at times even educational gatherings are invaded by the tricks and competitions of politics, that slates are made and broken, that committees are fixed and campaigns instituted. The presidency attained by such means must lose much of the brightness of its glory. But when the office comes of its own accord, as the golden branch in the Cumaean forest followed the hand of Aeneas, then one cannot but gratefully accept it and strive to make himself worthy of the trust.

For, while an honor, the office is still more a responsibility. These are times, as you were lately reminded, when the teacher must "wrestle rather than reign." More questions are raised in every educational meeting than are settled before its close. In every department of our work, better adjustments are needed, the recognized agencies must be improved and organized, and for certain lines of effort new machinery appears to be required. Much of this work is to be done by men and women now living. Among the agencies available, the American Institute has an honored place. Its special task seems to be to furnish an arena, on which before a mingled audience of teachers and the general public the friends and opponents of theories old and new may struggle in amicable antagonism, till the best shall be made evident and shall win the sympathy of all. Nor need we ever fear if the contest of the giants at times waxes warm. The end, we may rest confident, will ultimately be the "survival of the fittest." Let us give to all discussions which promise to uplift the teachers or the public to

higher planes of thinking, or of practical efficiency, a hearty welcome.

The task of guiding an agency of this kind to successful results is not an easy one; your presidential chair is no sinecure. But it is pleasant to remember that the responsibility rests not there alone. The president of the Institute is only one, but the vice-president of the Institute—as Artemas Ward would say—is most abundantly numerous; and it is on these officials that I wish to lay a measure of the responsibility. From your centres of observation all over the land, you shall be the Argus eyes to see as no one man can see, and report what the patrons of the Institute desire and need. To you I shall look for hints as to subjects, speakers, the place and the time for meetings, and for all means of extending the usefulness of the grand old organization which has chosen us all to serve her through the coming year.

For himself, your president can promise little. None can understand so well as he how small is his ability for the task you have so graciously set before him, for your present gift is all of grace and none of merit. If devotion to duty can avail, or if a hearty purpose to serve the boys and girls of to-day in their highest interests is of any worth, these shall be laid upon the altar of the Institute. Besides, in the six years of his services in the management of the Institute, he ought to have profited somewhat by the example of the masters under whom he has been apprenticed. Who could be associated with the "silver-tongued orator" from the Granite Hills, "from whose lips flows speech sweeter than honey," without catching by very contact something of the art of persuasion? From the busy man of affairs, too, skilled in marshalling details, who presided at Burlington and again at Newport, there was much to learn. And in the presence of him who for the past two years has been our genial and urbane executive, what observer has not learned how to direct with energy and to preside with grace? One must indeed be a dull pupil, not to do credit to such masters as these. If there be anything to praise in the administration of the coming year, please remember to ascribe it, not to the president, but to these, his helpers and his teachers.

President Huling then, assuming the duty of his office, called the customary meeting of directors to be held at the conclusion of the Institute meeting.

The Rev. Mr. Gates, pastor of the Methodist church, in whose house the Institute had held its meetings, was invited to the desk and pronounced a benediction.

The American Institute of Instruction, meeting of 1890, then adjourned.

The numbers in attendance have not this year been so large as was desired; but the exercises have been exceedingly interesting and profitable, as well as harmonious. A good strong record of progress was made. President Littlefield's two terms have netted a substantial addition to the treasury.

After the adjournment of the Institute, a meeting of Directors was held, at which President Huling appointed the usual committees, the report of the treasurer, James W. Webster, was presented and accepted, and the usual amount of routine business was transacted. Steps were also taken preparatory to the meeting of 1891.

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION,

Adopted August, 1870, as a substitute for the older one, and amended July, 1886.

PREAMBLE.

We, whose names are hereunto subjoined, pledging our zealous efforts to promote the cause of popular education, agree to adopt the following Constitution.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

The society shall be known by the title of the American Institute of Instruction.

ARTICLE II.—MEMBERS.

1. The members of this Institute shall be divided into three classes, styled active, associate, and honorary.

2. Any person interested in the cause of education and recommended by the Committee on Membership may become an active member by a major vote of the members present and voting at any regular meeting.

3. Only active members shall be empowered to vote and hold office.

4. Any person of good moral character may become an associate member by paying the annual assessment.

5. Honorary members may be elected by the Institute on recommendation of two thirds of the Directors present at any stated meeting of the Board.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

1. The annual meeting shall be held at such time and place as the Board of Directors shall appoint.

2. Special meetings may be called by the Directors.

3. Due notice of the meetings of the Institute shall be given in the public journals.

Article IV.—Officers.

1. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer, an Assistant Treasurer, and twelve Counsellors; all of whom shall constitute a Board of Directors.

2. The officers shall be elected annually by ballot, and shall continue in office till their successors shall be chosen.

Article V.—Duties of Officers.

1. The Secretary shall give notice of all meetings of the Institute and of the Board of Directors, and shall keep a record of their transactions.

2. The Treasurer shall collect and receive all moneys of the Institute, and shall render an accurate statement of his receipts and payments annually, and whenever called upon by the Board of Directors, to whom he shall give such bonds for the faithful performance of his duty as they shall require. He shall make no payment, except by order of the Finance Committee of the Board.

3. The Board of Directors shall devise and carry into execution such measures as may promote the general interests of the Institute; shall have charge of the property of the Institute; shall be authorized to publish its proceedings and such papers relating to education as may seem to them desirable. They shall have power to fill all vacancies in their Board, from members of the Institute, and make By-Laws for its government.

They shall have power to vote an annual assessment of one dollar upon the members, except honorary members, that shall be present at the annual meeting; they shall annually elect the following standing committees:

(1) A committee of three, who with the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, shall constitute the Committee on Membership, whose duty it shall be to report to the Institute, from time to time, the names of such persons as they may recommend for membership.

(2) A committee of three on Finance, whose duty it shall be to audit the accounts of the Treasurer, and under the control of the Board of Directors to draw orders on the Treasurer for the payment of charges against the Institute.

(3) A committee of three on Necrology.

4. Stated meetings of the Board shall be held on the first Saturday in January, and on the first day of the annual meeting of the Institute.

Article VI.—By-Laws and Amendments.

1. By-laws not repugnant to this Constitution may be adopted at any regular meeting.

2. This Constitution may be altered or amended by a vote of two thirds of the members present at the annual meeting, provided two thirds of the Directors present at a stated meeting shall agree to recommend the proposed alteration or amendment.

BY-LAWS.

1. At all meetings of the Board of Directors seven members shall be necessary to constitute a quorum to do business.

2. It shall be the duty of the Secretary, on application of any two Directors, to call special meetings of the Board at such time and place as the President may appoint.

3. Before each annual meeting, the Treasurer shall have printed certificates of membership, numbered consecutively from one upward. These certificates shall be attached to stubs having the corresponding numbers printed thereon.

The book of stubs left after the certificates of membership are detached therefrom shall form a part of the Treasurer's account, to be delivered to the Finance Committee, for the purpose of auditing the accounts of the Institute.

ADDRESSES.

I.

THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK.

By Mary A. Livermore.

Whoever is unaware of the profound change now passing over the thought of the civilized world has been a careless observer of the signs of the times. Economic questions are agitating the entire community, all industrial undertakings are closely scrutinized, and an exhaustive controversy is in progress everywhere concerning the rights of employer and employed. Every phase of social science is under discussion,—poverty, disease, crime, education, and religious coöperation. Matters pertaining to the problem of living out-rank in interest purely literary themes, and form the topics of a large proportion of modern publications. The pulpit has dropped the metaphysical and theological hair-splitting discussions of the past, and now expatiates on the humanities. On every side, earnest men and women are battling for some needed reform, or pleading in behalf of some imperative philanthropy. Man is greater than his institutions, and when these no longer fit his needs, it is wise to readjust them. A thing is not necessarily better for being old, and the highly developed man of the nineteenth century has outgrown many of his institutions, which are hoary with age.

In no field of modern thought and effort is there larger activity than in that of education. The last

twenty years have been marked by constant educational discussion and criticism, and out of this have come radical changes for the better. It is not many years since it was believed that any one could teach a primary school. No special aptitudes were thought necessary for teaching little children, and if any one had been bold enough to advocate professional training for the work, he would have been laughed to scorn.

But to-day the world is beginning to recognize the truth of Lord Brougham's declaration that "a child learns more in the first six years of its life than it can or does learn, after that age, during its whole life." For this is the root-life of the human plant, and the root-life must forever determine what the stem and blossom must be. So the kindergarten system has been developed and established, which concerns itself more with the development of faculty than with the mere imparting of knowledge. It has come to be regarded as the foundation of education, which must be begun at the earliest possible age.

The common school has been largely considered in the past a contrivance for teaching boys and girls the rudiments of learning, and has been treated accordingly. But that low estimate has given way to the nobler claim that it is an agency for the development of children as human beings. Its course of study has been broadened and made more comprehensive, its methods have been improved, and the quality and training of its teachers have been advanced to a high standard. As the colleges derive a large proportion of their students from the high school graduates, whose numerical strength is sure to be increased in

the future, the relation of the public school to the college is in process of readjustment, and a more symmetrical system of education will ultimately prevail.

As good health is the great prerequisite for useful and happy living, it is evident that physical culture should be incorporated into the curriculum of the schools. It should be made compulsory in every school of the land; for the advantages of a well built body, kept in thorough repair, are of inestimable value. "Only a little time each day is needed," says Blaikie, "never over half an hour of actual work indoors, with another short period out-doors, to strengthen the weak child, restore the misshapen, insure an erect carriage, give habits of full breathing, and strengthen the entire trunk and every limb. If the teachers have not the requisite knowledge to conduct this training," he continues, "let them be induced to take prompt measures to acquaint themselves, practically, with the bodily exercises, which are sure to prove beneficial to their pupils. For this will react on themselves, giving them increased vigor for their arduous work, and enabling them to cope more successfully with the worries, privations, and troubles incident to daily life." Bodily culture has already been engrafted on many school systems, and with a growing sentiment in its favor its adoption is sure to become general at no distant day.

Whoever wishes industrial education in the higher departments of labor to-day, need not go far in search of good opportunities. Technical schools and agricultural colleges of high character are well established, and are increasing. But that phase of the problem of

industrial training which is most discussed to-day, and which is of vast importance, relates to the public schools. Shall these give to their pupils a manual training which will enable them, hereafter, to pursue successfully some particular industry? And can this be done without curtailing the present curriculum of the schools, or abridging the time devoted to it? No one can deny that the social and industrial conditions of our people have so changed in the last few years as to make this instruction necessary.

The ancient commercial dimensions of the earth are lost, and the American working-man or woman is brought face to face with the competition of the world at large. "The epic of the future," says Carlyle, "will not begin like that of Virgil, '*Arms* and the man, I sing,' but, '*Tools* and the man [or woman], I sing.'" One of the most deeply felt needs of our nation is educated labor. And if there were a lack of prison statistics bearing on this question, my own studies in numerous state penitentiaries have taught me that ignorance of any handicraft by which one may make a living is a fruitful source of crime. Since eight tenths of the children of the public schools must live by manual labor, their education should include its principles and practice. The public mind has slowly reached the same conclusion. And the schools of the future are certain to teach hand studies, with the annex of workshops, for practice, as part of the school laboratories.

The end of all education is the formation of character. The acquisition of wealth and power, the gratification of self, and how to get out of life the most of personal comfort and enjoyment, are not the para-

mount objects of living. All that we can carry with us out of life is what we build into the architecture of the soul. And that system of education is a failure, no matter how complete it may be otherwise, which ignores moral training, or gives it a secondary place. As a people, we have been so intent on the separation of church and state, that we have carried the divorce so far as to make it doubtful if the state can stand it.

When we complain of the corruption of politics, the dishonesty of business, and the immorality of society, we make sad confession of the neglect of moral culture at the household hearth, in the church, and schoolroom. Hundreds of thousands of children in the public schools come from homes where no moral training is ever given. And if this lack is not supplemented by the teachers, to whom these children are committed at an early age, there is little hope for the perpetuity of our republican institutions. The moral nature existed before the Bible was written, for "man is made in the image of God." Whether we are Christian or Atheist, Protestant or Catholic, Jew or Gentile, we all profess to believe in the moralities. And these can be taught without the aid of religious dogmas, and in such a manner as to create no legitimate cause of complaint that sectarianism enters into public school teaching.

In short, the demand of the age is this: Put your *whole* boy and girl into school. Give to them trained teachers, who can instruct, inspire, and lead. Make compulsory education the law of the entire nation, and then rigidly enforce it.

Do not let me be understood as criticising the public school teachers. No one honors or appreciates them

more than myself, and I have a large acquaintance among them. To them, nothing that I have said is new. Upon them is imposed a Herculean labor, greater than that assigned to the members of all other professions. For they are expected to fuse and mould our heterogeneous children into the embryo form of American citizens, which shall develop into intelligent, patriotic, and moral men and women. They stand, like the angels of the patriarch's dream, on every round of the ladder of learning, lifting the children of their charge to a higher development than many parents are able to understand.

Three fourths of all of them are women, and of these, three fourths have had less than five years' experience in teaching. The normal schools are too few and too small to give them all the help they need. The colleges are now coming to their aid. Of the nine hundred and eighty-eight colleges and universities with their one hundred and fifty-one thousand students, two thirds now open their doors to women, and a majority of their alumnæ enter the profession of teaching. There still remains a lack of professionally trained instructors, and the need is very great. We are told that only a minority of clergymen in the pulpit to-day have had a college training, only eighteen per cent. of lawyers, and five per cent of physicians. We need not, therefore, be surprised that many professional school superintendents are obliged to instruct their teachers in principles and methods, because they cannot secure those who have already received this training.

If it were possible that the time would ever come when the business of teaching would drop entirely

into the hands of women, I should count it a calamity. For men and women together do better work than either can do separately. One supplements the other. In the home, which is made by the happily married husband and wife, there exists a higher order of society than can be found elsewhere, and, other things being equal, the children trained in that household are likely to come to a rounder and more harmonious development than those reared by either parent alone. The same is true of pupils who are so fortunate as to be educated by the joint instruction of superior men and women. For man and woman are the two halves of the unit we call humanity, and wherever they work together under favorable auspices, whether in the home or in the school, in church or in state, in the family or in the nation, a higher order of results is reached.

In closing, let me say that never has the educational outlook been more hopeful than to-day. It is a time of prodigious activity and generosity, of discussion and change. A former president of Wellesley, in a recent address, gave an amazing summary of the most prominent gains of the last twenty years. "The college endowments of the last two decades have been more in amount than all the gifts to colleges since the founding of Harvard, sixteen years after the landing of the Pilgrims. Seven and one half millions have gone to Harvard. Yale has been made over by her gifts. Twenty millions have been devoted to the building of Stanford University on the Pacific coast. Another million has been consecrated to a college at Chicago. Clark University at Worcester has received munificent gifts.

"Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr have been

founded for women, and Vassar has just celebrated her twenty-fifth anniversary. By the side of the university at Cambridge has sprung up 'The Annex,' which does the same work for girls that Harvard does for boys, and with the same professors. Barnard College for women stands side by side with Columbia for men. Sage College is the sister of Cornell, and a women's medical college is to be coördinate with Johns Hopkins. All the state universities of the West receive women on equal terms with men. Money has been poured out like water to endow institutions of learning, or to add new features to those already existing."

The persistent but constantly baffled efforts made in the United States senate to furnish larger educational opportunities to needy and illiterate sections of the country will yet eventuate in wise and beneficent action. The colored people and the Indians are steady gainers in the number, character, and location of the schools established for them. The Chautauqua movement, with its clubs and reading-circles, is extending everywhere, and now numbers a hundred thousand members, ninety thousand of whom are women. The Pundita Ramabai, pushing her school and her labors for the education of high-caste Hindu widows, derives her funds from the contributions of American women.

The deaf mute is taught to speak, the blind to read, and the imbecile to think. Libraries are multiplying in number and increasing in value, and art museums are enriching communities. Institutes of technology, manual training schools, schools for physical culture, normal training, and every form of art and scientific

specialization are being pushed in this country as never before. England and Germany are levied upon for teachers, and professors are sent abroad for study, returning with added knowledge and experience. Never has there been an era of such extraordinary activity.

A better day is dawning, full of promise for the child of the future. To-day, however, the call is for continued, unflagging, and intelligent work in all departments of education. While we count our illiterates, who can neither read nor write, by millions, but who yet are legal voters helping to shape the future of the country, and while their number is being increased almost every week of the year by recruits from the lowest strata of European peasant and city life, who "leave their country for their country's good," there is visible in the educational outlook no halting-ground in the near future. Teachers of to-day, "God has anointed you with His odorous oil, to wrestle, not to reign!"

II.

WOMAN AS AN EDUCATOR.

By Gilman C. Fisher, Superintendent of Schools, Weymouth, Mass.

I confess to you that, as I approach my subject, seeing how large it is and what its points of contact are, I am surprised at my boldness and should like to turn back. I have a grand subject—no man ever had a grander—and I approach it feeling very much as I imagine the English maiden feels when she is about to be presented at court for the first time. I am afraid I shall do injustice to a subject so broad, so delicate, so likely to lead one to indulge in the language of the emotions, and yet a subject raised so high above mere etiquette, mere sentiment, mere form.

And I derive little consolation from finding that few have treated it before me. I am, as it were, a pioneer in the wide open. The subject is as fresh as the forest wherein no tree has as yet succumbed to the axe of the woodman, or the prairie whereon there is no trail. Searching through a large library, I have found practically nothing bearing directly upon it. Volumes have been written upon evolution and free trade, upon hypnotism, anti-poverty, the ethics of this and the ethics of that, but no one, so far as I know, has deigned to contribute so much as a single published essay to "*Woman as an Educator.*"

I am all the more surprised at this dearth of treat-

ment, because, while the subject is largely, or in a measure, psychological, and must ever remain so, owing to the lack of data from which to reason, yet there are facts and figures, there are personal experiences, yours and mine, that put it within the range of practical pedagogics, and make it not merely one of the most exalted subjects that an educational convention can discuss, but also one of the most exact.

A glance at the report of the Commissioner of Education reveals good ground to stand on.

There are nearly twice as many female as male teachers employed in the public schools of the United States, and the relative number of the former is increasing. In this imperial state of New York, embracing one tenth of the entire population of the Union, there are eighty-two female to eighteen male teachers. In New England there are eighty-six female to fourteen male; in Massachusetts ninety female to ten male; in New Hampshire the same. Comparing these statistics with those of other countries, we find that in England and in Sweden the relative number of female teachers is about the same as in this country; but going over to Germany we are confronted by a very different situation. Here the figures for Massachusetts are precisely reversed, and instead of ninety female to ten male, we find ninety male to ten female teachers. This brings us at once face to face with the gigantic proportions of our subject. If the superiority of the German schools is due to the employment of so many male teachers, we ought to know it. If the virility of the greatest military nation on the globe is due to the influence of the male mind as exerted in the lower grades—and you know that in Germany there

are old and serious men, grandfathers sometimes, wrinkled and spectacled, teaching the very little ones and delighting in the work—we ought to know it. If American manhood is in peril because in the rural districts probably one half, and in the cities of this country probably three fourths, of the boys and girls get from women all the schooling they ever receive, we ought to know it. And so, as we think of these things, light is shed around us; our subject grows; its glorious outlines develop and stand out, like those of some regal mountain, when, saluting the rising sun, it takes off its cap of clouds.

Why are the German schools so good? Wherein lies woman's weakness in the school-room? wherein her strength? What do we owe her as school superintendents, grammar and high school principals? How shall we conduct Teachers' Institutes to make the most of her? These, and questions like these, must be answered.

I do not claim to be an authority upon German schools. I do not speak German, and although I have crossed Germany and crossed Austria several times and have travelled about in those two countries more or less, I have never, I am ashamed to say, visited a German school. But I have, as you have, means of knowing about the schools and the school systems of Germany, and I believe, I *know*, their superiority is not due to the employment of so many male teachers. It exists in spite of that employment and is due to other causes. It is due primarily and above all to the professional *training* that German teachers receive and must receive, like ministers, lawyers, and doctors, and the professional *spirit* that is born of that train-

ing. "Pedagogy" is a word that means something in Germany. It means the prodigious literary activity of the people. It means exact knowledge, vast horizons, and the insatiable curiosity with regard to the mysteries of being that is peculiar to the Germans. It means the production of more books in Germany every year than in England, France, and the United States combined—works on pedagogy, including school and educational books, taking the lead in point of numbers, and not works of fiction, as in other countries. It means a psychological understanding of the work to be done in the school-room, and the successive steps to be taken to develop the child's faculties in a normal and enlightened way. It means a wider acceptation of fundamental truths. You ask a German teacher why he does so and so, why he pursues such or such a course, and his answer is ready. He has a reason for everything. But you put the same questions to teachers in this country and you will very likely receive for a reply, Because Superintendent Jenkins or Chairman Jones says so. It is down in the course of study.

What we want in this country is to get at first principles, and to get at them through chairs of pedagogy in the universities and through university culture generally, just as the Germans do. How does a great editor compose his editorials? He writes right along steady and strong. He has had his experience. His style and his convictions are established. He is what he is. In educational science, Germany is the great editor, America is the tyro. What we want is a headship or a unity of headships, just as we have a unity of states and a unity of individualisms. We are weak

on the psychological side. We have our good points, our strong points, and in some respects we are ahead of the Germans. Germany is no doubt what she claims to be, a nation of scholars and specialists; but we are a nation of practical workers. Our educational papers are better edited and far more helpful than the German. Our elementary text-books, in point of adaptability, literary style, and typographical finish, are vastly superior to the German. We have better school furniture and more attractive school-rooms. There is more *heart-feeling* in our management of the pupils. We are doing more to teach morals and manners. A German professor, visiting one of the suburban schools of Boston recently, was greatly surprised because a little girl whom he chanced to meet as he entered the doorway said, "Excuse me" as she passed out. German teachers employ taunts and ferocious criticism, apply epithets and call names, and administer cuffs and beatings, that would not be tolerated in this country. They are less tactful and trustful than we are in the management of pupils. A German king once visited a school of his realm, and was received by the school-master who pretended not to recognize him. Seating him upon the platform as if he were an ordinary personage, the school-master went on with his work, paying no attention to the royal visitor. But when the school was dismissed and the pupils had all gone, he came forward and made an obsequious low bow. "Why did you not extend to me these courtesies when I came in?" enquired the king. "Because, your majesty," was the reply, "it would have been ruinous to the discipline of my school to have acknowledged in the presence

of my pupils that there was any one in the world greater than I."

The points of excellence thus far noted in our schools are due largely to the co-labor and influence of women. *They* bring the heart-feeling into our schools. *They* make the educational papers bright and racy, and fill them with devices all ready for use. *They* popularize our text-books. Their names may not appear on the title-page, but as sister, wife, daughter, friend, they make suggestions and sometimes write the entire book, getting no credit for it. I know this to be a fact, and I tell you that if the secret history of the text-book making of this country were written, it would be a glorious page in woman's history.

Permit me for a moment to attempt a bird's-eye view of the principal organizations and features of what I shall call our *directive system*.

Occupying first place under the headship of the higher institutions are the normal schools, adapting the views of specialists, and serving as the connecting link between the universities and the people. Supplementing these are the summer schools and the reading circles. Performing a somewhat similar service are the county, state, interstate, and national conventions, together with the national superintendency. All these are mainly legislative or advisory in their functions. Next come the city and district superintendencies, which are destined to be powerful instrumentalities in shaping the common-school systems of this country. They are mainly executive in their functions. Under them teachers' meetings are held and training-schools organized to

shape the work of the superintendent and carry out his plans. So much depends upon him, that he should have not only large administrative abilities, but also the essential endowments of the college professor and the normal school principal; *i. e.*, he should know underlying principles like the former and be able to apply them like the latter. A good test of the superintendency is found in the character of the teachers' meetings held under it. If these are conducted in such a way as to be a bore to those who have to attend them, they are a failure. They should be popularized, just as preaching is popularized nowadays; they should be as effective as a church service that has an eloquent pastor and high-salaried singers at its head, and full of practical suggestiveness. Then there is the state superintendency, which is at once advisory and executive in its functions.

Under these agencies the American schools are developing. What have they to do? *To teach the right thing in the right way at the right time*, for that is all there is to pedagogics. Can the male mind do this alone? I do not think it can. Can the female mind do this alone? I do not think it can. The perfect work of the school-room will be done only when there is a perfect division of male and female labor in all the departments of human activity. Time alone will bring this about. But rest assured, in the ultimate division, woman will have a high place as educator, as a social, literary, and political factor in the world, elevating the masses and promoting the best interests of mankind, and it will be deemed man's first duty and privilege to sustain her in that high place in order that she may shine.

There is nothing so stamps a man with the indelible and unmistakable evidences of his brute relationships as a low conception of woman. Go gaze upon the face of the Sistine Madonna, go study the conception of the Virgin as wrought out by the great masters in Italy and elsewhere, and then ask yourselves, Would God have given the Christ birth to Mary if He had not designed to place woman on the heights? Is she just for the nursery? Is she just to suckle the child? to wash and dress it? No: to entertain a view so coarse and common is to sink back to the level of the brute. She is to teach it and train it, to guide it and direct it, from childhood to manhood, and she is graced with special gifts to enable her to do this. When, dreaming of the future that lies before the child, she murmurs fondly, as it sleeps in her arms, Be good! Be kind! Be brave! Be true! she is fulfilling her natural functions as parent,—in other words, she is *teaching* it.

I would not crowd men out of the school-room. They have their place there too. It would perhaps be better if there were more men in the school-room. They have their way of looking at things, their habits of thought. They have strong paternal attachments too, and there are those who will run to the cry of a child almost as instinctively as a woman. A proud young school-master father recently said to me,—"I take a deep interest in babies now. Washed or unwashed, smiling or scowling, they are all perfectly charming to me."

I believe in mixed teachers as well as in mixed schools—in co-instruction as well as in co-education. It does girls quite as much good as boys to come under

the influence of a well bred and highly educated man. For the heads of institutions I prefer men to women as a rule; but they must be heads, and I insist upon it that if men are selected for grammar and high school principalships, they must be men, and not flighty young goslings or weak-kneed, pedantic old ganders. They must be vigorous, forceful men, and not apologies in silk stockings. They must have dorsal qualifications of a high order, to back up their teachers and protect them, and to make the conditions under which they labor just as pleasant and favorable as possible. I have a profound admiration for one who, placed at the head of a large institution, is a tower of strength there, keeps things well in hand, and commands the respect of all who come in contact with him. When Titian came to Parma and saw Correggio's famous fresco of the "Assumption of the Virgin," he said,—"Reverse the dome of that cathedral and fill it with gold, and then you will not have enough to rep-represent the value of that one painting." And so if I, as a wandering grave-digger, should come upon the skull of one whom in life I knew to have been a good school-master, a born school-master, I should say,—"Fill this with precious jewels, fill it to overflowing, and then you will not have enough, not nearly enough, to represent the value of that one life."

At the same time, teaching comes a little nearer a woman's life than a man's. More women than men are born to the business, and they put more conscience into it, more patient industry and hard work. How many women find themselves standing at the close of a hard day's work, weak and weary, and perhaps a little headachy and all but sick,—but the school-room

empty at last,—repeating the beautiful lines of Ellen Burt, who, I suspect, wrote them leaning over a teacher's desk-top herself:

> Who 's seen my day?
> 'T is gone away,
> Nor left a trace
> In any place.
> If I could find its footprints in some mind,—
> Some spirit-waters stirred by wand of deed or word,
> I should not stand at shadowy eve,
> And for my day so grieve and grieve.

If you want to know what a woman can do, read Little Lord Fauntleroy. If you want to try its effect upon yourself, begin it at about bed-time. You will soon find that you have an all-night job of it, and cannot sleep until you have finished the last page. And when the sky reddens to the dawn, and you put the book down at last, you feel like writing to the gifted author some such letter as this:

Dear Mrs. Burnett: How much good you have done me, and how much I thank you for your simple tale,—the sweetest, purest, best child tale that was ever written! They say you were a teacher once. What a power you must have been! They say you were poor once, and picked blackberries to get the money with which to buy stamps to send your first manuscript to the publishers. Blackberries will taste the sweeter to me hereafter for knowing this. You have lifted me out of myself. Your truthful, telling words have transported me. I thank you for them. They have touched my heart. I am a better man. I have experienced—*something*.

And if you want to try its effect upon the pupils, read it to them a few minutes each day until you have brought up in tears at the end. You will note the

eagerness with which they will put everything else aside to listen to you. It will be time well spent.

I think that women have, as a rule, a much happier faculty for controlling children than the men have, and that they are, in a word, stronger in discipline. I know a woman, weak and small, a cripple, in fact, who, when vacation comes, goes to the hospital for treatment; but she can control fifty urchins from one of the worst precincts of one our large cities, and do it all so easily that you would think she were engaged in some occupation no more arduous than that of turning the leaves of a book. Without a harsh word she quells their rebellious natures, and secures a stillness such that you would think at times both she and the young Arabs she lords it over were engaged in a season of silent prayer. Whence the power? I cannot say. It is a mystery. I only know that I do not possess it myself, and I know of no man who possesses it in equal degree with her.

This power over others woman carries out into the world with her. I recall the chairman of a certain school-committee, who used to say with great emphasis, "Yes, I want you to understand that at home I have everything arranged precisely according to my wishes." But he would add with a twinkle of the eye and becoming meekness soon afterwards,—"I always do just as my wife says."

In the formation of a boy's character I believe that the influence of woman is almost invariably towards strength. The true woman is strong. True womanhood embraces strength, and reverence for strength. Kate Field broke forth in an impassioned "Washington" editorial the other day, "What miserable failures

men are, to be sure, when they are not made of virile stuff!" It is a great encouragement to fight when women simply look on and say nothing against the fight. A Joan of Arc or a "Battle Hymn of the Republic" are worth more to a cause than a whole army corps. "Come back with your shield, or on it," as uttered by the Spartan mother, nerved the Spartan son. It put wine in his blood. When a male child is born the mother's heart leaps for joy. "Now," she says, "let him prove himself a man." The mother of Coriolanus declares,—"If I had a dozen sons, each in my love alike, I had sooner that eleven should die nobly for their country, than that one should voluptuously surfeit out of action." A million matrons feel the same to-day. Woman loves the heroic, and personates the higher forms of courage. You can make a John L. Sullivan without the influence and training of a woman, but not a knight of the olden time *sans peur et sans reproche.*

But the president's gavel is going to fall pretty soon, and during the little time that remains to me, I beg leave to address myself to the female teachers exclusively.

You know what your sex is doing. From the pines of Maine to the roses of California, from the bold shores and commanding reaches of Puget Sound to the sand-bar formations and low coasts of the Gulf of Mexico, woman is conquering a place in this country, a place in human affairs. As a factor in this great republic, she reads the "Wants" column like her male competitor, and goes forth, like him, to win all the prizes in the battle of life she can. She is first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of—*the children*,

grown-up and otherwise. She makes war on dirt, war on drunkenness, war on cruelty, war on profanity, war on crime, and although we still refuse to accede to that last great demand of hers, that crowning specification in her Bill of Rights, *full female suffrage*, we do accede to her other demands, or, at least, to very many of them, as they come up one after another in never-ending file, and we shall in time accede to that and to all her demands. It is only a question of time and—*a graceful surrender.*

Go to the great cities, and there you find woman as clerk, accountant, saleswoman, and telegraph operator. Go to Bradstreet's or Dunn's Commercial Agency, and even there you find her receiving reports and recording the very pulse-beats of the commercial world. To learn the standing of a customer you must consult her.

The editor of a religious weekly, in a public address a few evenings ago, stated,—"My paper is largely made up by women. They not only read proof, but furnish copy. They look over the exchanges and set the type. There are women to the right of me, women to the left of me, and women in front of me, and if things do n't go right they volley and thunder." And that 's just what they should do, and keep their own pure, sweet womanhood, too. It can be done. And the more women come forward and take their part in the active work of the world, assuming their share of the responsibilities, and contributing their quota to the ventures, great and small, of mankind, the more will the men respect and admire them, the more ready they will be to stand up for them, the purer will be the home life and the happier the married couples.

When Queen Victoria ascended the throne of England it was thought she aimed to be to political reformation what Queen Elizabeth had been to religious reformation—"the willing and glorious star to lead it on, and not the foolish and timid torch to frighten it back." And so would I have you, female teachers of America, be to that movement that is known as the woman's movement—to some it means much more than to others—"the willing and glorious star to lead it on, and not the foolish, timid torch to frighten it back."

See what you are to-day—25,000 in New England, 26,000 in New York state, nearly 200,000 in the Northern states, and close upon a quarter of a million in the whole country! Do you not see that you could wield a tremendous influence in shaping the destinies of womankind, if you only made up your minds to it? And it does really seem a pity that you should n't. You ought to assert yourselves. You ought to come forward as speakers and writers and Institute workers. We need you, your way of looking at things, your way of putting things, your ideas; you ought to speak right out in meeting, and fight your fight, you and your sisters in journalism and other fields, and the men ought to help you to do so. They ought to encourage you; and I, for one, do encourage you; for you are going to take the earth yet, and I want to make my peace with you.

To you all I would say, the question of what a woman is to be and do, is a question in economics. The nation cannot afford to carry a large class of unemployed women; neither can it afford to carry a large class of women who are employed in the wrong pursuits,—that is, in pursuits too narrow for them.

Ambition is as sweet to woman as to man. To shut the door of knowledge in a woman's face is a dangerous thing to do. To cut her off from a career that it is in her to achieve,—a high, noble, honorable career,—is like wrenching a star from its place in the heavens, casting it out of its orbit and compelling it to wander aimlessly up and down, not only doing harm to itself, but bringing confusion to the whole glorious system of which it forms a part.

In conclusion, there are no truer words than these of Tennyson: "The woman's cause is man's. They rise or sink together, dwarfed or Godlike, bond or free."

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, upon invitation, followed in the discussion of this topic. She agreed in the main with Mr 'Fisher. She stood here, because no woman of the Institute could be induced to speak for her sex. She protested that she was not out of the educational work, and had never ceased to do her share. The women of to-day do three fourths of the teaching, and she is afraid that they will do more. She recently addressed the graduates of the New Britain Normal School; seventy-five graduates, and seventy-four of them were girls. She asked why there was but one boy. Because boys won't come. They want to make money, or else go into training for the great prizes of life,—falsely so called,—those of politics. She does n't think well of politicians. She would keep a good proportion of men in the work of teaching, and would have them for principals and presidents, even in girls' schools and colleges; and Mrs. Freeman-Palmer has recorded the same opinion.

Why in Germany, it may be asked, are there so few women teachers? Germany is a military nation and is proud of her standing. She sends into service every boy who is not an invalid, and keeps him three, or it may be six, years in camp. Two million men stand armed, and at the first drum-beat must march, if the chief men pull the wires. Women then must do the menial work of building railroads and six-story houses, mixing mortar, carrying hods, unloading cars, quarrying rocks, and dredging rivers. She at one time counted three hundred and seventy-three women unloading freight cars, and some of them were so bent by their customary burdens that they never stood erect. The German man puts upon woman any burden that he hates to bear. German women coming to this country, finding how American women are treated, begin to demur, as the German mayor of Chicago once assured her. Germany wishes to stand first as a power, and all Europe has to maintain an armed neutrality, and will, until arbitration takes the place of the army. The German educated soldier is better than the uneducated. German law forbids a boy to use tobacco until he graduates from the public schools, because its use by a growing boy affects his eyes and heart and unfits him to be a good soldier. The law is made in the interest of the army. Because of the demand upon men for the army, woman is de-womanized and de-humanized. The discipline of German teachers is savage and sometimes brutal. A superior German tutor of American boys, finding one lad, after the call of the bell, reading Stanley so deeply that he did not hear the bell, seized him by the hair of the head and haled him to the school-room. Amer-

ican parents will not tolerate this heroic treatment. She deplores the marriage of an American girl with a German man, as he conceives of her as an animal made for his convenience. The courtesy of the American husband to his wife was once occasion of censure by a German, who said that Europeans could not respect American men so long as their wives made servants of them; but the husband's service is spontaneous, was the reply, and the wife is in her turn her husband's servant.

We are a young people, and so we go abroad to learn of Germany and Europe. Until Harvard was 115 years old we had no school for women. Boston was afraid to continue its first experiment to educate girls, and closed its schools for twenty years. Normal schools are new. If all the teachers were women, it would be a national calamity. There is best teaching when men and women teach, best study where boys and girls are pupils. It equalizes and corrects. If God had not so purposed, He would have placed all the boys on one planet and all the girls on another.

Horace Greeley sent both his girls to the convent. One married the handsomest man—the handsomest fool—in the land; the other sought to enter a convent, and bestow all her property upon it. Work in the line of your duty. Care not which is first and best. Husband and wife may discuss all questions but this, may vote and think differently, as is her own experience. In special directions, each is strongest and wisest in turn. Woman is strongest and wisest in the education of young children. Most women are born with the mother-heart.

III.

A PLEA FOR STUDYING FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

By G. Stanley Hall, Ph. D., LL. D., President of Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

Many read only local and temporary literature, the daily or weekly paper, which deals only with the here and now, which is important for all, but ephemeral; others extend their interests to monthly or quarterly publications, with broader interests, state, national, and perhaps international; third, and higher, come the national literatures, reflecting races and history, French, German, Italian, etc. Highest of all is the taste of and for the best, the great world classics,—Homer, Plato, Dante, Shakespeare, which have interest in all places and everywhere, because dealing with man as man. This highest literature might be called uncanonized bible. Thus, wherever a broader interest is substituted for a narrower one, there is progress. So in the study of education, teachers start with interest in their own room, grade, and city. A master, a city superintendent, a college president, must study wider and wider the history of education, the experience and institutions of other lands and of all grades. We have made great progress of late by teachers' associations; even college presidents associate. Harris, Parker, Philbrick, MacAllister, Dunton, DeGarmo, E. H. James, Klemm, Margaret Smith, Prince Scheib, and

many more have studied and reported in print on European systems, and have not been called un-American for it. Even many of our educational journals have been able to find some way of printing brief sections of notes about foreign institutions. One journal (Education) prints titles of important foreign publications. In fact, since the beginning of the century, the best things that have been printed and those that have had most influence have been accounts of what was going on in other lands. There has, of course, been much else that is good, but it is only recently that it has become possible for those here who read only English to get a fair knowledge of what is going on in Europe.

The same might be said of widening interest in time. The history of education must be studied and the postulate of substituting always and everywhere broader in place of narrower interests is what qualifies men for higher positions—college and university presidents, heads of bureaus, cultus ministers. This makes education professional. It destroys the water-tight compartment that separates high and low grades in education.

We have lately made great progress in this direction. This Institute and the National Association have interested us all in such questions as the Regent system in New York, training of Indians at Carlisle, and of Negroes at Hampton, in the incorporation of the kindergarten at St. Louis and at Boston. Professor Boone has shown us that we have a most valuable and interesting educational history. Even New England college presidents have begun to "associate," although not in the unreserved way in which this is done under the Regent system. It is no longer un-American or

unpatriotic to refer to or even praise foreign institutions. It is not ruinous to Christian beliefs to study them, and a man who specializes, as foreign systems require, is no longer a monster.

France never received such a push as from Cousin's well known report of what he saw in Germany. Buisson's report on the American system, which is the best account of it ever written, was a great stimulus in France. So were in this country the foreign studies of Bache and the remarkable series of foreign studies published by Dr. Barnard, even yet a most valuable thesaurus of educational information. This list might be greatly extended, but I am here chiefly to plead for more. The statement so often made, that he who knows but one language knows none, or, that he who has studied or experienced but one religion has none, has not only all the defects but all the truths commonly found in apothegms. It is the comparative method that now does the work of the world and saves specialization from its dangers. We must broaden our view to include the world, which modern methods of communication have now made one country.

Every one who wishes to lead or to succeed in the higher spheres of his vocation, whether in business or in scholarship, must now take the world view. What should we think of a professor of chemistry, or of mathematics, or of history, who did not keep himself promptly informed of all the changes and discoveries by leaders in his own department abroad! What but failure could await a business man who only studied the market, the manufacturing methods, or the supply of material in his own community!

What more do I want? I would see at least in one,

if not in several, centres in this country an educational library which should be, not large, but select; which should contain the best periodicals of Europe, the best one in fifty in this country, and current reports. The Bureau Library at Washington is too large, but contains for the most part only what has happened to come in by way of gift or exchange. In the second place, I would have a select museum of all school supplies, slates, pencils, text-books, desks, illustrative apparatus, etc., selected on a pedagogical basis like the pedagogical museums of Brussels and St. Petersburg. Third, I would have a curator who could read these books in French and German, at least, and could occasionally lecture and engage lecturers. Fourth, I would have at some university in this country a special course of pedagogy which should not be for teachers, but exclusively for state and city superintendents, principals of normal schools, and for the training of college professors of pedagogy. Fifth, I would have at the Chicago Exposition of 1892 not merely an educational exposition, but an international congress of education, which would help and stimulate us far more. Just as at the Paris Exposition specialists in many departments of science and learning had brief conventions which afforded great incentives, so our educational leaders should be brought face to face with men like Fitch, Quick, Compayré, Buisson, Wiese, and other European leaders.

Does any one ask, Is education abroad worth studying for the patriotic American? No educator abroad would for a moment question the value of studying our educational institutions, and we certainly have very much to learn from them. President Eliot has lately

shown, by careful comparison, the superiority of the French *Lycée* course to our best New England high school course, and it is well known that the German gymnasia are superior to the *Lycée*. Again: Continental schools employ more men in proportion to women teachers than we do. This means greater permanence and a more professional character,—a difference well illustrated in comparing this meeting of the Institute with the New York State Teachers' meeting now in session in this place. Special expert teaching by those who teach only one subject is more common in Europe. Pupils are allowed to study alone there far less than here. There are less sad gaps and losses of time and labor in passing from grammar to high school, from the high school to the college, and from the college to the university.

In Europe the curricula are far more thoroughly worked out than here, are more solid and meaty, and are almost as sacred as the scriptural canon itself. This is natural in lands where no one can enter either of the three learned professions, either become an officer in the army, or hold a high office of any sort under the government or a high place in a government railroad or telegraph office, without entering such position through a university or an institution of similar rank. On the continent, if the army of one country is made stronger than that of another, it is very likely to be owing to a different quality of the national military schools. Manufacturers are no less eager strategists in watching the latest scientific methods by which the processes of one country can short circuit those of another. Thus, the balance of trade as well as of military power is maintained by competition which

is now in the field of education. Once more: Courses and methods of education are studied and watched, not by average intelligences alone, as is too prone to be the case here, but by the very best minds in the country, and very slight modifications in the great standard or trunk line courses are very often discussed in legislative bodies. We cannot afford to erect single buildings costing several million dollars each, as Berlin and Vienna have done. Our best universities do not send representatives to congress, and our oldest churches and business houses have never felt it incumbent upon them to found scholarships or fellowships.

This country has never seen so much educational unsettlement as now. New universities at Washington, the shortening of the college course, the parochial question, industrial education, the new university movement that now seems impending, are only indexes of the profound deepening of educational interests. Italy and France, Scandinavia and Russia, have passed through such upheavals within the past few years, which have profoundly modified their methods, policy, and institutions. New men were never so rapidly coming to the front in educational matters in our country as now. We do not wish to adopt bodily the institutions of other countries to the extent that Japan and South American countries are now doing, but the need of the hour here is young men with broad educational interests and information, who can think comparatively, use what has been found good abroad, and reject the bad. I am unable to understand, with this great field open and many lucrative academic and other positions open, why young men are not forthcoming in this field.

DISCUSSION.

MR. RAY GREENE HULING, New Bedford, Mass. In asking me to speak in the place left vacant by the absence of Dr. Rounds, our president has shown his customary skill in adapting means to ends,—for he knows the value of contrasts in debate. In Dr. Hall you have had the subject presented by a mind admirably fitted by nature and experience to illustrate it. In the present speaker you have an illustration of a point of view diametrically opposed, that of sublime ignorance. The essayist, after having learned all about the systems and methods of other countries, comes to tell us that the study of those systems would be a valuable help to us. It is my privilege, out of a very narrow range of observation and reading, to bring the same message.

Born and educated in New England, and commencing work as a teacher there, I came to have an exalted idea of the state of the schools around me, and to believe that all worth seeing in systems and methods was to be seen within fifty miles of Boston. But one day in 1876, at Philadelphia, I ran upon the school exhibit of Ohio, and had sense enough to see how contracted had been my range of examination. Since then the feeling has been deepening, that, as teachers, we must make our field of observation the world, and that from many quarters we may well obtain lessons teaching us how to enrich the daily work to which we are assigned. From Sweden we are coming to learn how to secure physical training and skill in manual labor among children. From Germany we discover the value of careful preparation on the part of

the teacher, and rigid inspection of his work. Even France shows us how much a boy can do before he reaches eighteen, under a well coördinated plan of study. How great a surprise it was to some of us when that matter was brought into prominence a year or more ago by the distinguished president of Harvard! But our subsequent reading has compelled us to admit that he was right.

I am very glad, therefore, to enforce Dr. Hall's main contention, that a broad range of observation and reading is essential to all who aim to direct educational effort in America. The new movement at Clark University is greatly to be commended, and it is pleasant to learn that the course there proposed is to be made a strong one, demanding the whole time of those who enter upon it.

On returning from Europe one summer, I was asked whether a man was not a better patriot if he remained at home and saw nothing superior to the institutions of his own land, than if he went abroad and learned the faults of our American ways by the observation of better things elsewhere. To my view that question answers itself, in education, as in politics and economics. In America we must have the best, for the best is none too good for a nation having the glorious possibilities of our own. As teachers we need never fear that a better plan will be found anywhere than our own, of free public education for all. Let us simply add to this central idea all excellences that can be discovered by the widest range of examination, to the end that our coming citizens may be the most intelligent, as they are now the freest, people on the face of the globe.

HON. T. W. BICKNELL, of Boston. There are two or three ways of studying institutions abroad: 1. By and through foreign travel and observation. 2. Through foreign literature. 3. By observing the foreign population that has crossed to our shores. This last method should not be underrated. Germany is in fact in America to-day, right under our observation. We can here see how this Germany, the product of foreign institutions, improves as it takes on an American character.

We should take issue with Superintendent Fisher on the question of virility. We tried Hessian virility in 1776, and the Hessian fled. We have tried German virility, and found it lacking. I admire above all, I am frank to say, good old Yankee virility—in the home, in religion, in business. The Yankee school-house is back of this virility, and the Yankee school-ma'am is the power within the Yankee school-house.

IV.

THE SCHOLARLY SPIRIT.

By Rev. Bradford P. Raymond, D. D., LL. D., President of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

More than fifty years ago Mr. Emerson said, "The scholar is man thinking." That, however, is a text that needs elaboration into a volume. Not every colored piece of canvas is a painting. Not every rhythmic product of the imagination is a poem. Not all thinking processes are scholarly. The scholarly spirit has distinctive characteristics. They are not external. Neither the style of the coat nor the cut of the hair is characteristic of the scholar. He is not necessarily a recluse, who has himself grown into misconformity with all the affairs of the world. This is the age of steam and electricity, and under the impulse of these forces the world moves with such irresistible momentum, that the veriest Rip Van Winkle of thought must wake up and adjust himself to the movement of things, or be rolled helpless in the revolving wake of the century.

The distinctive marks of the scholarly spirit are subjective, and are characteristic of all scholars, from Socrates to the savant of to-day. They are an enthusiastic devotion to some field of knowledge, combined with the power of accurate and comprehensive thinking. It is possible to sum them all up in the one thought, the power of sustained and accurate think-

ing. That this involves an enthusiastic love of the truth is apparent, for the reason that neither the indifferent man nor the indolent man will pay the price that is necessary for this attainment. Slovenly thinking costs little, but the thinking that strives for the complete mastery of all the details, so essential to accurate knowledge, whether in literature, in science, in philosophy, or in any other line of thought, is altogether beyond the man that has not fallen in love with the truth. It is just as evident, too, that accurate thinking must be comprehensive thinking. Things must be thought into relations if they are to be accurately thought, for the reason that they exist in relations. The drop of dew that flashes on the rose leaf is not an isolated thing. The light that is in it comes from afar; its form is moulded by the same forces that wrought in the formation of the worlds; and the elements that enter into it are akin to those that constituted the waters above the firmament when the world was young. There are no isolated facts. Julius Cæsar can be understood only in the actual relations in which he lived and wrought. He needs to be seen cut against the Gallic sky, Rome hot with political revolution behind him, all Gaul alive with revolt before him, his legions advancing and hammering into the earth all opposition. Only as the truth is sought with devotion, and thought comprehensively, can accurate thinking be attained.

This power is not hereditary. However potent may be the influence of the scientist or the philosopher over his child, he cannot transmit the power and habit of sustained and accurate thinking. This is to be attained only at great price. We have as little command

of our thoughts as of our limbs when we first begin to use them. It is the business of the college to carry forward the work begun in preparatory schools,—the work of maturing and establishing the power and habit of sustained and accurate thinking. The curricula of the colleges are supposed to furnish superior advantages for the accomplishment of this result. The higher mathematics demand absolute accuracy. No slovenliness of thought will meet the demand. In the field of science, the student by the aid of the most delicate instruments is stimulated to accurate observation, and then is required by experiments and recitation to test and confirm what has been observed. In the study of language, he must master the thought of the author, and then the language with which that thought may be expressed. In literature, he must get the point of view of the writer, appreciate varied characters, detect inconsistencies of action in these characters, develop principles of criticism and a taste that detects instantly any infelicities of language, even as the musician detects the effect of a painful discord. This work repeated daily, through a period of four years, will mature and confirm the habit of sustained and accurate thinking.

While it is true that appliances of every sort are being introduced into our schools and are indispensable, the most important factor after all is the teacher. No amount of apparatus can take the place of the teacher. He can, if need be, make good the absence of appliances by his genius. He must think accurately, demand accurate thinking, and inspire it in his scholars. We need to learn more thoroughly that thought cannot be poured into the soul, that it is subjec-

tive, and that we must supply the conditions that lead the thinking subject to think. We need to secure a more permanent tenure of office in all our secondary schools. The work of teaching must be regarded as a profession. Too much of this work is done by those that are on the way to one of the professions. It is not made a life work. When that is done, we shall have better methods and they will be more perfectly carried out, through the whole educational system, from the kindergarten to the university.

To multiply men and women of the scholarly spirit is to insure a more careful consideration of every great question, civil, social, moral, and religious. We stand confronting many questions that are not to be settled extemporaneously. What is to be done with the questions of reform? the problems involved in taxation, temperance, the relations of capital and labor, the negro question, immigration, pauperism, crime, and a score of other questions that readily suggest themselves as demanding immediate attention? We must have statesmen who have the historic sense and see the scope of events, who have the scientific spirit and appreciate facts and the modifying influence of apparently insignificant facts, who have the ethical sense, and are keenly sensitive to the rights and wrongs of men. This means trained men. But the supply of such men is dependent upon the demand by the people. Multiply the number of those who think accurately, and the demagogue is doomed. The state, the church, and every great interest in our modern and mighty civilization will be served by the multiplication of men and women in every community, who

can see clearly and think accurately. The schoolmaster will be found to be the most potent factor in the permanent settlement of all the great questions which now vex our age and imperil our civilization.

DISCUSSION.

HON. JAMES W. PATTERSON, LL.D., State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Concord, N. H. The scholarly spirit in our day is very diffusive. It is multiform in its phases and susceptible of a very wide definition. We may say, without irreverence, that it "bloweth where it listeth, and thou hearest the sound thereof, but canst not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth."

In the earliest ages all knowledge was communicated in verse. The bard sang of agriculture and law, of meteorology and astronomy, of the incidents of travel and the deeds of heroism, of the pleasures of love and the sorrows of death. The scalds of Iceland, the minstrels of Scotland, and the minnesingers of Germany represented the literature of all but the south of Europe, before the middle ages. But with the growth of civilization these early songs were differentiated into all the forms of poetry and prose, and with the advancement of the people and the development of industries the literature of the arts and sciences had its birth and evolution.

In the division of labor which necessarily arose in the progress of the race, lofty and beautiful themes clothed themselves naturally in the language of song, cultivated largely by men of leisure and social elevation; but the knowledge and arts of a practical char-

acter, which demanded a clear and simple utterance that could be understood by the masses, took the form of prose. The boundaries between the two, however, were often disregarded. It is the prerogative of genius to range through the whole realm of literature; to breathe the sublimest and tenderest spirit of the poetic soul into the commonest and simplest objects, or to bring the grandest and most transcendental themes within the apprehension of the humblest, by clothing them in the familiar language of the people.

The original distinctions of learning die out in the historic progress of mankind. The many have been approaching the few through a decade of centuries, and have gradually driven them from their asserted prerogatives and abused privileges, till to-day men rule in the right and in the power of the people, and institutions are organized in the interests of society. Henceforth the old-time civil or ecclesiastical absolutism will be impossible among enlightened peoples, and in our day the possibility of such a thing is only a dream of the uninformed. The scholarly spirit has become pervasive and universal in Christian nations. Learning no longer hides in dark and mysterious cloisters, or secludes itself from the masses in private universities with the arrogant cry, "*Procul, procul este, profani.*"

But the body of knowledge has become so broad in this age of sciences and arts, this age of authors and investigators, that scholarship, except here and there in a few Baconian spirits, must devote itself to specialties. The curious, unresting spirit of the student at work in field or laboratory while others idle, brings to light the unrecognized forces of nature that add

indefinitely to the power of human achievement and revolutionize the industrial and social status of mankind.

The scholar is equally potential in the sphere of letters. As the attractions which impel the planets in their courses and maintain the order of nature are unseen and silent, so the efficient causes which underrun and determine the social and civil history of mankind are the germinal ideas cast into the literature of the world by its eminent students. The great doers, whose power controls the conditions and destinies of generations, and whose names exhaust the adulation of the world, are themselves fashioned and mastered by the unrecognized and neglected thinkers, who, it may be, a century before our splendid achiever was born, uttered in seclusion and poverty words which have reformed institutions, revolutionized society, and kindled a new life and a diviner hope in the toiling millions. As submarine currents baffle and give a new drift to the superficial movements of the sea, so original thought will reverse or give resistless force to the flow of our historic life. "Beware," says a distinguished writer, "when the great God lets loose a thinker on this planet."

The scholarly spirit, if indulged, becomes a passion which impels its votaries into a search for the intellectual and spiritual springs of human action, and the understanding so instructed in the fundamental facts of the organic life of society no longer drifts in the superficial and temporary flaws which disturb the public mind. This is one of the chief advantages to an organized community of the influence of schools of learning. So far as society is under the influence of

scholarly tastes and enthusiasms it will be wisely conservative and healthfully progressive. An uneducated people is at the mercy of passion and prejudice, and may be swept into any extreme of folly or misfortune, but the reason and judgment of an educated people are stored and steadied by all that men have thought and done in centuries, and by the blood-bought experiences of generations. A knowledge of the historic past is an indispensable condition of free institutions and national prosperity.

The mind that has come under the control of the scholarly spirit is heir to the accumulated wealth of thought which has come down to us from all the intellectual nations of the past, and in the republic of letters each subject may enjoy the entire inheritance which, unlike other treasures, increases by use. With our modern methods of multiplying and circulating the products of mental activity, whole peoples, so far as educated, may be informed and disciplined by the great masters of history, may be inspired and lifted into a nobler life by the lofty sentiments of enduring literature, and may be "lapped into Elysium" by the genius of song.

We do ourselves a wrong if we limit our companionship to the local and present, when we may hold daily communion with the mightiest spirits of all lands and all ages, and in our measure be transformed into the same image. The inspiration of the poems of Homer and Shakespeare, the statesmanship of Cicero and Burke, and the philosophy of Plato and Hegel will be the spiritual food of successive generations of scholars, and will leave an abiding impress upon the moral character and thinking faculty of all

who sit at their feet. The disciples of these kingly teachers, like relays of torch-bearers, hand down their thoughts and influence to succeeding generations so that posterity is blessed in the enduring productions of the great masters of the world.

In this age, when science and the industrial arts play so important a part in the scheme of national life, a study of chemistry, electricity, physics, and natural history is indispensable to a people who would succeed in the rivalries of business. Hence the natural sciences have become a favorite field for the labors of our later schools and colleges. Here the fascination springs, not so much from glowing rhetoric and exquisite felicities of style, as from the constant discovery of laws and principles which may lift the race to a higher level.

In literature we are traversing the paths of the great leaders who have preceded us in the march of time, but in the realm of nature the student traces with an ever increasing wonder and admiration the thought of the infinite mind in its ceaseless evolution, and grows strong by contact with that which is infallible and infinitely practical. In this the spirit of modern scholarship finds its richest and most fruitful field. Nature has no rival in art as God has no rival in man.

There are successive stages in the development of national life, and each stage has special aptitudes for the attainment of ends natural to and characteristic of the time. In the military period, men of supreme force and genius devote their energies to the acquisition of fame in the issue of battles and the conduct of campaigns. In the business period, men of the largest

possibilities concentrate all their intellectual and physical powers upon the accumulation of wealth. Both the commercial and the military spirit are antagonistic to the highest attainments or achievements in the department of literature. The scholarly spirit does not reach its acme till wealth and power have been secured and the men of largest ability are forced to seek for immortality in imperishable products and creations of the mind. Not till the genius and ambition of a people are set at liberty in the realm of thought does the golden age of learning dawn upon a nation. This is the classic epoch—the epoch of Pericles and Goethe—which sooner or later throws its glory into the history of every great state.

We to-day are in the stage of money-making and await the acme of American literature whose prophecy is rich in promise. But the fever of gain, intensified by the discoveries and inventions of the age, is running riot in the veins of the republic and threatening its future life and prosperity. Our danger is not so much that the scholarly spirit may fail to secure for us the higher education, as that it may not have sufficient power to give to the millions that throng our magnificent domain that lower education without which popular governments are impossible. European states have been forced to adopt our example of free schools, and are out-rivalling us in the privileges of scholarship afforded to the masses.

Popular education is not only the genius of liberty, but it is also the dominant element of political economy. We cannot afford, even in the business of money-making, to allow any state to neglect the education of its children. But rising far above these mercenary

ends is the consideration that the scholarly spirit is the source of national character, and the promise of grander and diviner things yet to be in the unwritten history of the republic.

V.

THE ESSENTIALS OF GOOD TEACHING.

By J. C. Greenough, A. M., Principal of State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.

The school is as the teacher. The teacher accomplishes his ends by teaching. It is fitting that we consider the essentials of good teaching. Teaching is occasioning that mental activity which results in knowledge and in power. The first essential I name is knowledge. My limits forbid me to dwell upon this. Another essential of good teaching is, that it be in accord with principles inherent in the nature of man.

But what is a principle of teaching? Many things presented to us in pedagogical books as principles are but rules,—statements directing action. The venerable A. P. Peabody says, "In every science, the principles are the ultimate truths, behind which one cannot go, from which all other truths may be inferred, and by which all alleged truths may be tested. It is the property of a principle," he adds, "that it cannot be defined, or reduced to anything more simple than itself."

One principle of teaching is: The activity of the mind is modified by the condition of the body. This principle requires that we care for the physical well-being of the student. Lessons in hygiene should be given in every school. Manual training has its place in a system of instruction, if for no other reason, because of the interaction of mind and body.

Another principle may be thus stated: Knowledge is primarily gained only by means of its objects. You may not have seen Mont Blanc: some one tells you that its top is covered with snow and ice. Having gained knowledge of snow and ice by means of the objects snow and ice, you know something of Mont Blanc. Your knowledge of the mountain is but secondary. It is sometimes called information. Its value depends upon knowledge primarily gained for ourselves by means of our own objects of thought.

A third principle is, that the mind gains knowledge and ability to do by the exertion of its active power. You look at this object (rays of light pass from it to your eyes); through the eye you receive an impression of it. The mind active in receiving impressions we name passive power. But your minds also produce ideas of the object. Mind active in producing is active power. Self-activity is conditioned upon attention. Attention is self-direction of the mind in thinking. It is the primal element in self-activity. It has its origin in the mind, but the teacher can occasion it. The ability to arouse, sustain, and control attention is of the first importance in a teacher.

There are two forms or kinds of attention,—attention determined by impressions from without the mind, and attention determined by one's self, by will. When these two forms concur, we may have the most intense attention. It may be of service to us to notice them separately. Attention by impression, passive attention, is the attention of childhood. Before the reflective powers are developed, the mind is moved from without. The kindergarten recognizes this fact. The teacher of the primary school must win attention and

put a play element into it. Some one may ask, Why not make all of school duty so agreeable and so easy that passive attention will suffice? I answer, that no one is equipped for the duties of life, until he has acquired by exercise of will the ability to determine for himself the activity of his faculties. Voluntary attention is one of the distinctive characteristics of a man. It is the pivot of our moral nature. Its abiding source is in a worthy purpose.

A fourth principle is: The mind gains knowledge of objects in natural order, and of subjects in logical order. The natural order is the order to be followed in all teaching of individual objects, in elementary teaching. By studying objects in the natural order, we gain facts to be used in logical processes in evolving scientific truth. So far as this principle relates to subjects, it requires that a general truth shall be taught by teaching the facts from which the general truth is inferred. This principle forbids that a pupil shall be required to commit to memory any general statement, the meaning of which is afterwards to be explained.

Another principle may be thus stated: The mind gains a knowledge of any object or subject first as a whole, then of its parts in relation to the whole and to each other, and then of the parts as separate wholes. Upon this principle method depends.

Some one may inquire, Do we not begin with the study of parts? Are we not told by Agassiz, King, and Carver to begin the study of geography with the study of the landscape and the natural objects it contains, and are not the landscape and these natural objects but parts of the earth? I answer, When the child observes from a hilltop the mountains, the high-

lands, the slopes, the valleys of the landscape; when he observes the course of the familiar stream, its banks, its current, its quiet waters, and how it fills in some places with silt, and how it cuts away the earth in others, he is gaining ideas by means of real objects; and under a skilful teacher guiding his attention and supplying needed terms, he gains ideas and language to use, when he studies geography proper. This is preparatory work; it is elementary geography. When the pupil begins the study of geography proper, the first thing to be done is to excite ideas in the pupil's mind such as the earth as a whole would excite.

The last principle that I name is this: Rational teaching is for definite and permanent ends. There should be no aimless teaching. Every lesson should have its definite ends. The more clearly the teacher finds in the minds of the pupils, in character and conduct, the ends to be gained, the greater will be the value of his teaching.

A third essential of good teaching is method. As I have before said, in gaining knowledge of anything we naturally cognize it as a whole, and then the parts. As we pass to the parts, we notice the relation of the parts to the whole and to each other, and then consider the parts as separate wholes. In this way alone is complete knowledge gained. If we begin with a part, it is a whole to us, for a part cannot be known as a part until we have ideas of the whole. The analytic method is, then, the true method. Synthesis is the sequel of analysis. As we gain, by analysis, a knowledge of parts, the mind by synthesis combines the knowledge of parts into a comprehensive knowledge of the whole.

"Analysis and synthesis," says Hamilton, "though commonly treated as two different methods, are, if properly understood, only the two necessary parts of the same method."

We have now noticed method as determined by the activity of the mind gaining knowledge. Other divisions of method may be made by considering the means used in teaching. On this basis, it has been customary to make two grand divisions, the oral and the written or text-book method; but these divisions are of secondary importance. The two divisions of method, as determined by the means used, are objective teaching and lecturing. Whenever the teacher presents his own ideas and thoughts as a means of teaching, whether his language is oral or written, upon the board or upon paper, or printed in a text-book, and whether objects are used or not used, the teaching is, in form, lecturing.

The formula for the objective method may be thus stated:

1. Present, or lead the pupil to present to himself, the real object or subject to be studied.

2. Fix the attention of the pupil upon the object or subject and direct him in its study.

3. Lead the pupil to state his own ideas and thoughts in his own language.

4. Correct the language of the pupil and introduce new terms as needed to express the pupil's ideas and thoughts.

If in objective teaching the teacher so directs the pupil that he studies first the whole and then the parts, the teacher employs the analytic method, and the teaching is analytic and objective.

As the development and use of this method marks in a very large degree the progress in method during the present generation, we may be allowed to dwell a little upon it, by comparing it with lecturing. If taught by lecturing, the pupil begins with statements; if by the objective method, the pupil begins with the thing studied. If taught by the objective method, the pupil observes and thinks for himself, states his own ideas, and commits to memory primarily the truth rather than the words expressing it. By lecturing the pupil is told, by objective teaching he learns for himself.

All elementary teaching must begin with the objective method, and whatever is absolutely new to the pupil can be taught in no other way. So far as this method involves a method of study, it is the method of every original discoverer. Socrates used it. It was the method of Bacon and Descartes. In the hands of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and others of the new school, the objective method revolutionized the primary teaching in Germany and helped the schools of the world.

The oral objective method is the method for the primary school; it is conversational, and in every grade provides for the interaction of the mind of teacher and of pupil. Yet the oral objective is in some respects inferior to the written objective, for when each pupil is directed in his study by a written schedule, then each can work independently. One pupil is not aided by the oral statements of another, as in the oral objective.

Lecturing, both oral and written, has its place as a means of teaching. If the pupil is prepared for it by

objective teaching, so that the words used by the lecturer occasion clear and distinct ideas, then lecturing is a means of imparting a knowledge of facts beyond the experience of the pupil. Lecturing is a means of imparting secondary knowledge or information.

But knowledge, principles, and methods, however important, are not the highest essentials of teaching. They are well-nigh useless, until vitalized by the personality of the living teacher. A single sentence of Arnold, penned in his private diary the evening before his sudden death, reveals the secret of his success: "Above all, let me mind my own personal work to keep myself pure and zealous and believing,—laboring to do God's will."

But how can we delineate that personality which directs and energizes to the attainment of ends the noblest and best? One element in this personality is the ability to cherish an ideal and to make it grow. The imagination holds in our minds the mechanism of our school work ready for use; but the imagination has a higher service, it should hold before us ideals of personal excellence. A teacher without aspiration is so far dead. Genuine men and women in every path of life, who have "allured to brighter worlds and led the way," may help us to form our own ideal, as we study not so much what they did as what they were. We must also idealize our pupils; not what they are, but what they are to become, we should keep in mind.

The teacher must be enthusiastic. Genuine enthusiasm comes by earnest reflection upon one's duty, one's privilege, one's opportunity. This is something more than the enthusiasm of the scholar of which Pres-

ident Raymond spoke last evening. It comes by reflecting upon our duty, our privilege, our opportunity to aid our pupils. The true teacher is informed with an abiding moral and religious purpose. He finds that in the material world things move in the line of moral purpose. As he teaches history and traces the operation of social dynamics, he finds that moral laws interpenetrate all social life. Such a teacher will be a teacher of morality and will infuse a religious spirit, in whatever department he teaches.

Lötze remarks that mechanism is always essential, but everywhere subordinate. We are never more convinced of this than when we study the life of a great teacher. We find something individual, indefinable, not transferable—a positive, strong personality. The reader of Plato may apprehend in some degree the method of his teacher Socrates, but who has yet apprehended the man Socrates? Yet we may learn much by studying the life of an Arnold, an Agassiz, or a Hopkins.

It was my pleasure for a time to sit at the feet of Mark Hopkins, so many years at the head of Williams College. To the grand personality of this man, I beg leave in closing to refer. He was enthusiastic. By this I mean more than is commonly meant by this term. He did not protrude that muscular motion nor that gush of feeling, by which one easily feigns enthusiasm. His was not enthusiasm born of a desire to succeed on an occasion or to attain some personal end. One element of his greatness was his ability to apprehend the possibilities, and hence the value, of every one who met him in the class-room. In this he reminds us of Arnold of Rugby, who said, that in

spite of the English custom he felt like removing his hat in the presence of even his youngest pupils. In his own way to help those who gathered about him to realize their intellectual and moral possibilities was to Mark Hopkins a work of supreme importance.

Dr. Hopkins was in sympathy with his pupils. By sympathy some understand merely a ready responsiveness of emotion to the emotions of those we meet. This is a sort of instinctive sympathy which indeed does much to make us social beings, though it is something we share with forms of life below us. Dr. Hopkins's knowledge of the human mind was profound; his perception of individual characteristics, intuitive. Students were not long in the class-room, ere they felt that he knew their excellences and their intellectual and moral needs. They each, also, felt assured that he with the utmost good cheer was using his large wisdom to help each to evolve his native powers, to round himself out in a complete manhood in accord with the divine ideal. It followed that in the regular work of the class-room the individuality of each student was recognized. He did not attempt to make one student just like another. He so coöperated with each that each seemed to advance in knowledge and in power by his own free effort.

We do well to remember what he so well exemplified, that it is not by any one study, nor by any course of study, but by the interaction of mind with mind, that mental power is generated. Dr. Hopkins was determined by his teaching to form individual men. "It is far easier," he was wont to say, "to generalize a class and give it a lesson to get by rote and hear it said and let it pass, than it is to watch the progress

of the ipdividual mind, and awaken interest and answer objections, and explore tendencies."

Dr. Hopkins had faith in his pupils. He had faith in God. He trusted Him and rejoiced to do His will. He felt that so far as he did his duty to his pupils, he was a co-worker with God. The fountain of his abounding cheer is evident, when we hear him say, "I do know that God is love. Whatever else I hold on to or give up, I will hold on to that. That I will not give up."

We use a word to denote the effect that personality produces. That word is influence. This word implies that in some way the personality of one person flows into another. Our Christianity is based upon this fact,—"Christ in you the hope of glory." Personality finds many channels. It often flows in the line of philosophic method, and it sometimes overleaps all method. Personality reveals itself in the eye, in voice, in manner, and in movement; but personality that directs and inspires is not born of manner, or of voice, or of expression. Personality uses these, but these are not it. Personality is the result of our thought, our feeling, our striving. It is said of Bias, the wise Greek, "Himself is the treasure a whole life has gathered." Personality prevails simply by being what it is. Truthfulness produces truthfulness; justice, justice; manliness, manliness.

DISCUSSION.

MR. JOSEPH E. MOWRY, Principal of the Federal-street School, Providence, R. I. Each must, in the nature of things, talk from his own stand-point. He might not see the whole field as could the venerable teachers before him. When he first engaged in the work of teaching, he supposed he was employed to teach a few branches for a few hours each week; but, as his vocation opened before him, he saw still "Alps on Alps arise." Our schools now receive pupils scarcely able to talk and are expected to send them forth full-fledged citizens.

What the teacher should be depends largely upon what he has to teach; but among the essentials of good teaching he would state, as first, the possession of such knowledge of the subject as shall at least enable the teacher to do well what he would have his pupils do. What one would have pupils learn, he must make appear worth knowing; and, if he would do this, he must know it himself. "There is a charm in real knowledge which every student feels," and when the teacher possesses it, he inspires his class with confidence in him and with the desire to learn, a necessary condition for successful teaching. Practical, useful knowledge is power to do; or the power to do is the infallible proof of knowledge. Do we, can we, in reading, mathematics, translating, essay writing, etc., place before our pupils examples of the perfection we demand?

Secondly, the good teacher should be able to comprehend fully the thoughts of the individual pupils, which requires the closest attention and great mental activity on the part of the teacher. When those who

have chosen for their profession the instruction of the young have become men and women, they may cease to act as children, but they must continue to think with the children. This is necessary to the detection of errors and the removing or overcoming of obstacles. We must know how the pupil interprets and reproduces our teaching, and we must not always obstinately proceed in our way and expect the pupil merely to follow. In Jules Verne's "Journey to the Centre of the Earth," the professor had decided conclusively that there could be no way to get there, but was compelled by the pupil's enthusiasm to attempt it in the pupil's way, and they got there,—an ideal illustration of what frequently happens in the schoolroom and in the field of science. Illustrations were given of pupils' misinterpretation of the author's meaning in geography, and of the teacher's failure to discover the pupil's difficulty in arithmetic.

Thirdly, teachers should have the ability to select and adapt methods with discrimination. An original, wide-awake teacher, under peculiar circumstances, may adopt methods that secure astonishing results, and yet the same methods pursued under changed circumstances may result in failure. For example, in schools where learning to read English is the first step in acquiring the language, it may be advisable to make the reading lesson an exercise in acting charades, and have the pupils illustrate the meaning of run, strike, etc.; but, with pupils who learned the language as their mother-tongue, such diversions would better be left for evening entertainments.

The expiration of the time allotted prevented the presentation of other essentials by the speaker.

VI.

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

By Edwin P. Seaver, A. M., Superintendent of Public Schools, Boston, Mass.

Public provision for the professional training of teachers dates back in this country scarcely more than half a century. The first normal school was opened at Lexington in Massachusetts in the year 1839, and the normal school at Bridgewater in the same state will celebrate next month its semi-centennial. But most of the normal schools of the country are of more recent date. Only within the last twenty years have they and their graduates become conspicuously numerous. Substantially the whole of our experience with them falls well within the lifetime of the present generation.

There were, indeed, schools of earlier date than the normal schools, whose declared purpose was to augment the supply of well qualified teachers; but the methods employed by such schools to qualify their pupils for teaching were hardly of a sort to justify our describing their course of training as distinctly professional in its character. Their work was chiefly academic; and they conceived that young people were to be qualified for teaching by bettering their scholarship. According to the current notion of those days, a teacher was qualified for his work if he could command

obedience and was not obliged to study hard to keep one lesson ahead of his first class. If to these modest attainments he possessed some familiarity with more advanced studies, so much the better; for he would thus be able now and then to start a bright boy or girl on a higher course of studies. But the preparation of teachers for their work through systematic studies in the history, the science, and the art of education had not been set forth as the governing purpose of any school or seminary before the normal schools assumed this as their specific function. Therefore it is that the establishment of the first normal schools nearly at the same time in several states marks a most important epoch in the educational history of this country.

Ten years older than our oldest normal school is this our American Institute of Instruction, an association formed among the educational leaders of sixty years ago for the purpose of promoting educational progress and reforms through public addresses and debates. Some of the earlier reports of meetings indicate pretty clearly the current of thought which soon resulted in the establishment of the first normal schools. From these reports we may learn what the then existing needs were and what the new teachers' seminaries were expected to do; so that we have a kind of standard by which to measure the success already won and to estimate the work yet remaining to be done. In the whole normal school movement, from the earliest days down to the present time, this Institute has always cherished a deep interest. Not inappropriately, therefore, may the Institute to-day review the history of normal schools, point out wherein they have proved equal or unequal to the work expected of them, and

suggest what further provisions may yet need to be made in order to secure for the future ample and thorough professional training for teachers of all kinds and grades of schools.

Of the three phases of the subject just indicated, relating to the past, the present, and the future respectively, this paper shall touch only on the last two, leaving the historical review to be presented by the venerable and venerated educational leader,[1] the active period of whose life more than covers the whole existence of normal schools in this country, who himself made a part of the history he will review, and whose presence with us here to-day—an event in itself remarkable as an instance of happy longevity—is to us doubly welcome for his coming in a representative character also,—an ambassador, as it were, from an earlier generation, bringing the salutations of the great educational leaders of that day to the educational workers of this.

In estimating the present state of affairs, we find some important things which may be set down to the credit of normal schools.

In the first place may be mentioned their success in spreading the conviction that the professional training of teachers, as a matter apart from their advancement in pure scholarship, is a prime necessity. This has now gone so far that high school teachers, observing the advantages the teachers of elementary schools have gained from normal training, are actively seeking the means of securing the same advantages for future members of their own order. Next, the normals schools have

[1] Hon. Henry Barnard, LL. D., now in his eighty-sixth year, still vigorous in body and mind, and no less interested than ever in all educational matters.

done and are still doing much to improve the current methods of teaching, particularly in the common schools. Says an observer of large experience, speaking of what our present normal schools, when fully organized and developed according to their plan, are capable of doing,—

"More than anywhere else skilled teachers are needed in our primary schools. How best to educate a little child still remains the hardest of educational problems; and when solved theoretically, the actual work of conducting the process in the school-room will require an artist of the highest order. In this field our normal schools . . . should win the greatest triumphs, and do most for the people who have established and continue to support them."—(J. P. WICKERSHAM, Bureau of Education, Circular of Information, No. 6, 1888, p. 74.)

To me it appears not claiming too much to say, that in the field of primary instruction our normal schools have already won conspicuous success. Their greatest triumphs in the future will probably be in other fields, although of course perfection has been reached nowhere. Furthermore, our normal schools have greatly promoted among teachers the study of the history, the science, and the art of teaching. Witness the increased sales of pedagogical books and periodicals, the wide-spread interest in teachers' institutes, summer schools of methods, training classes, pedagogical reading circles, etc.—all means for promoting the same ends that normal schools have in view, and resorted to in order that the benefits of normal instruction may be enjoyed in some measure by those who have never been normal students. This sort of interest may not

yet have deepened so much as we might desire; but it is certainly wide-spread.

Again, normal schools and their graduates, by the spirit and attitude they have maintained towards their high calling, have promoted, in no small measure, the popular recognition, such as it is, of teaching as a learned or liberal profession, independent of the traditional three—divinity, law, and medicine,—but not inferior to any of these in dignity and public importance. A marked characteristic of normal graduates is, that their professional spirit runs high. And finally, may we not, without injustice to other agencies, attribute to the influence of normal schools largely the great reawakening of interest in popular education which has marked the last few years, making the present time, perhaps, not unworthy to be compared with that of half a century ago?

Looking now on the other side of the account, we must note some things which normal schools have not yet done, but which their founders possibly may have expected of them. They have not yet overcome an unfortunate lack of scholarship which has usually characterized their students in school, and which has not infrequently proved a serious hindrance in after life. This is not said by way of finding fault. We must recognize the fact that circumstances have compelled most normal schools to refrain from demanding much scholarship as a condition of admission, and from imparting much after admission. Says Secretary Dickinson of Massachusetts, speaking of the early experience with normal schools in that state:

"No candidates asking for admission could be found who were prepared to pass a satisfactory exam-

ination in the common English branches of study, much less to enter at once upon a professional course of instruction for teaching."

And again, speaking of his personal experience in later years:

"I have never known a candidate for admission to the normal classes to be fully provided with the elementary knowledge he is expected to be able to communicate when he takes up his work in the public schools."—(Bureau of Education, Circular of Information, No. 6, 1888, p. 75.)

The state of affairs is but little better to-day. To a defective knowledge of the common English branches candidates from the rural high schools may have added some little smattering of more advanced studies; but this, save in rare instances, has been all the preparation the normal schools could count upon. This slender outfit in scholarship could receive but scant increase in the normal course itself; and even this increase, highly desirable as it might be, has been given at the risk of justifying the common criticism, that normal schools spend too much time in merely academic work to the neglect of their proper business. The dilemma has been an embarrassing one; and there is no doubt the managers of normal schools have done the best possible under the circumstances; but the consequence has been, that these schools have suffered in their reputation for scholarship.

But this is not all. A still more serious consequence has been, that the professional work proper to a normal school was injuriously hampered, first by want of time, and secondly through a lack in the students of the mental discipline necessary to enable them to mas-

ter the abstruser parts of educational theory. With students but slenderly prepared in the ordinary disciplinal studies, the study of methods of teaching could hardly advance into the region of principles, but must halt for the most part in the empirical stages. Anything like a broad view of educational philosphy or fulness of information in the history of educational doctrine and practice would have been clearly out of reach, even had there been time to attempt such pursuits.

The remedy is obvious though not easy. It is to raise the standard of scholarship for admission to normal schools so high that these schools may be relieved of academic work altogether, and at the same time to improve the public schools so much that these demands for higher scholarship can be met without undue difficulty. "We may expect," says Secretary Dickinson in the paper already quoted from, "that the public schools will sometime become so good that their graduates may enter our teachers' seminaries fitted to enter at once upon professional study." But that time is not yet, and may not come for many years. That will depend partly on the standard of fitness we set up, and partly on our rate of progress in developing and improving the public schools. Meanwhile the normal schools must go on doing some academic work. To this they are constrained by a desire that their proper professional work may be done even passably well. And so long as this necessity exists, it would seem best to recognize it frankly and provide for it by making the normal course longer. This would be, undoubtedly, a wise step to take for the purpose of making the normal

schools fully adequate to the work in their present field—the common schools—and with no view to the enlargement of that field.

One other thing which was probably expected of normal schools they have not yet done: they have not trained many teachers for high schools and academies. Here is a field for normal school work which has not been occupied—hardly entered, indeed. Our high schools and academies are, for the most part, supplied with teachers from the colleges and universities. Such teachers bring to their work the university training in scholarship, but, with rare exceptions, no training in the principles and methods of teaching. Occasionally, indeed, a college graduate repairs to a normal school to spend a year before accepting an appointment in the school service. And this is not an unreasonable or profitless course for him to take; for the principles that guide good teaching are the same everywhere, and may be learned from their application in one grade of schools about as well as in another. Occasionally, also, a normal school graduate becomes subsequently the graduate of a university, and so unites the two kinds of training. But this is a roundabout way which few will ever take.

Now it would be a most excellent thing, if it could be brought to pass, that all academy and high school teachers should take both collegiate and normal training before entering upon their professional work; but under existing conditions the way is not easy or natural, and few can be expected to take it. So it has been the fact thus far in their history, that normal schools have assumed substantially no function beyond

that of training teachers for the elementary schools. Nor is this statement invalidated at all by the admitted fact that some so called high schools in the rural districts are now taught by normal graduates; nor by the further fact that some normal schools have undertaken to train teachers for that service,—because these very useful but rather ambitiously named high schools are really not high schools at all, being inadequately equipped for fitting boys and girls for college or for carrying their pupils far along with advanced studies of any kind.

That the original conception of our American normal school was so large as to embrace within its proper function the professional training of all teachers, in what grade or kind of school soever, is easily shown. Here is a bit of the evidence in two resolves passed by the American Institute of Instruction in the year 1836:

Resolved, That the business of teaching should be performed by those who have studied the subject of instruction as a profession; therefore,

Resolved, That there ought to be at least one seminary in each state devoted exclusively to the education of teachers; and that this seminary should be authorized to confer degrees.

The teachers' seminary "should be authorized to confer degrees." This would place it on a level with the colleges or with the professional schools of a university. In either case the conception is a large and noble one; and if we compare it with what normal schools have actually done—and I would not in the least disparage the great and genuine achievements of normal schools—the comparison will show a large unrealized part of the original plan that should now awaken serious interest.

Having noted some things which normal schools have done and some things they have not done toward making the professional training of teachers universal, let us next inquire what the universities have done. The answer is, almost nothing. But for what Michigan university has done and what has come of a few courses of lectures elsewhere, the answer would be, absolutely nothing. Whatever has been done in the whole country has been done, with trifling exceptions, by the normal schools alone. For fifty years the normal school movement—which has been truly described as "the most important modern movement in educational history"—has been going on, and the universities have taken no part in it. And yet has it not been truly said, "The great function of a university is to teach, and to furnish the world with its teachers"?

Of course the university authorities, many of them, will not willingly admit that they have been negligent in this regard. They will probably declare that the scholarship of those of their graduates who turn to teaching is much better than it was twenty or forty years ago. They will point to their plans for elective studies, whereby students are now allowed to concentrate much time and effort on one department, so carrying their acquirements in scholarship to a pitch quite beyond the reach of students under the old plan of the same studies for one and all—a little of this, a little of that, and not too much of anything, lest the balance of universal mediocrity be destroyed. This is all very well—a change in the ways of the higher education to be profoundly thankful for—but it is not an answer to the point now in question. The professional training of teachers, as a matter apart from their advancement

in scholarship—that is the point—certainly has remained a thing unattempted and almost unthought of in American universities down to the present day. The case has been much the same in England and in Scotland until recently. But there a change for the better is well under way. Is there to be one in America?

To show what is needed, and what few university men as yet sufficiently realize, let me read an extract from an English writer,[1] a university man, describing a state of affairs which we may easily enough see to be our own in all essential points:

"According to the custom of certain public schools, a classical teacher enters upon his duties as soon as he has taken his degree as a Bachelor of Arts, without undergoing any professional training, without attending any course of lectures on education, without having read any book on the subject. He is supposed to conform to the traditions of the establishment to which he attaches himself, and in case of doubt or obstruction to apply for advice or support to senior teachers and to the head-master. His outfit for this enterprise may consist, and certainly did twenty years ago often consist, of a few score classical volumes read and pencilled more or less carefully, a few drawers full of manuscripts of his own composition or copied from the stock of a private tutor, and a few commonplace-books containing the notes taken at college or university lectures. . . . He is fortunate if he has been kept waiting for a vacancy long enough to have spent a few months at Dresden, Rome, or Tours, for it is in the first few months after the degree that the academical

[1] W. Johnson, M. A., in Essays on a Liberal Education, London, 1867.

mind passes through its fermentation, nor is there any time in life in which knowledge is acquired more rapidly or assimilated more thoroughly. If one could afford to remain unemployed, and the school could dispense with one's services, it would be in the highest degree desirable to assure oneself a considerable interval between the undergraduate's excitement and the schoolmaster's servitude. It is not that one is put into the grooves of professional duty blindly or even hastily, since it generally happens that one has been able as a lad of eighteen at school to observe the processes of the master; and to the college student not many topics of conversation are more familiar than the defects and absurdities of his school, few convictions stronger than that of his being himself intended by Providence to supply and amend them. The incepting Bachelor is likely to be at once fervent in admiration of an idealized institution, and of one or two living persons belonging to it, and bitter in contempt for the actual practice of most of the men who are making a livelihood out of the business."

All which seems true to life here in America. Now this most fertile period between graduation at the university and beginning work in the school-room is precisely the period which needs to be given to a study of the theory and methods of education. In the case of the other professions it would be unnecessary to urge such a course for a moment. Nobody would dream of doing otherwise. But from time immemorial the assumption among English and American university men appears to have been that the mere possession of knowledge is a sufficient qualification for the business of imparting it.

Regarding this matter in general, there appear to be two current opinions both containing truth, but each becoming false if held in extreme form and to the exclusion of the other. One of these opinions looks for the qualification of a teacher in his knowledge of the matters to be taught. This view, as already intimated, is apt to be taken by university men, who are often curiously at a loss to understand normal school men in their solicitude about methods. The other opinion places little value on scholarship, but regards a knowledge of methods as all-important. Normal school men seem to be prone to this way of thinking. In my own experience I have met with both these opinions in quite extreme forms. The contrast will illustrate the thought I wish to present.

Conversing one day with a young college graduate about the results of the examination he had just passed for the teacher's certificate of qualification, I told him that his knowledge of the current methods of teaching Latin and Greek appeared scanty; for I had found him quite unable to describe them accurately, much less to give reasons for preferring one to another.

"Yes," said he, "that is true. I know very little about methods; I suppose one learns all that from *pedagogy*"—with just a tinge of contempt in his tone as he pronounced the last word; "but I may say that I graduated at the university with high honors in classics, and I certainly think I ought to be able to teach all the Latin or Greek in a high school."

On another occasion I had quite a different sort of candidate to deal with. He already had great repute as a teacher; but he was not a college graduate, and made no concealment of his contempt for what he was

pleased to term the pedantry of college-bred men. My desire was to ascertain the state of his scholarship in the several matters he would be expected to teach; for he had avoided subjecting himself to the written examinations and was seeking the appointment on the strength of his reputation as a teacher.

"Are you familiar with botany?" was one of my questions.

"I have never studied it," said he.

"Do you know anything of mineralogy?"

"Nothing."

"Or of zoölogy?"

"Nothing."

"But all these matters are set down in the course of study, and you would have to teach them if you should be appointed."

"Well, that is of no consequence. I have no doubt I could teach them all to your satisfaction, for, you know, *teaching is an art*."

Now two currents of thought, which unmingled tend toward such absurd extremes, ought to be reconciled and united. Then they would carry the whole truth. Methods and scholarship should be valued as alike indispensable. When this is the accepted doctrine, we may see on the one hand less of the empty formalism that results from exclusive devotion to methods, and on the other hand less of the amorphous exuberance that grows from minds devoid of methods. On the basis of such broader doctrine the university-bred teachers and the normal-school-bred teachers can come together, understand one another better, and work together more harmoniously for the advancement and honor of their common profession.

This brings us within view of the point at which this paper has been aiming all along. How can university men be educated to believe that a preliminary study of methods of teaching is at least equally important with the possession of a knowledge of the matters to be taught? Or, to state the same question in a more practical aspect, What provision would best be made for the professional training of college graduates who are going to be teachers?

Three answers have been suggested, which the short remainder of my time permits me to consider but briefly.

In the first place, there are some who say that the college graduates should go to the same normal schools that other persons go to if they wish to be prepared as teachers. It is said, truly enough, that the principles of good teaching are the same everywhere, only the ranges of application vary; and the principles can be studied in one range of application about as well as in another. But it is also true that the college graduate brings to the study of principles a mind far better disciplined than the less instructed graduates of the public schools can bring. The feeling of disparity in this respect would be enough to deter most college graduates from entering the normal schools as they now are. The first answer, therefore, may be dismissed as impracticable.

Again, it has been proposed to establish "normal schools of higher grade," and specially adapted to the wants of college graduates and of all others wishing to become teachers in high schools and academies. This is not an unreasonable proposition; and theoretically it meets the conditions of the case very well. But there

may be good practical reasons for setting it aside for another.

The third, and to my mind the only fully satisfactory, suggestion is, that the universities themselves take up the matter in good earnest and provide us with such a solution of the problem as lies in their power, and in their power only, to offer. No new seminary for the training of teachers, standing outside of and unrelated to the university, could command anything like the success-winning prestige which a seminary organized within the university precincts would enjoy. No; the new teachers' seminary we want must have all the prestige which an organic connection with the university can give it; must have at command all the libraries, the laboratories, the museums, and the collections, all the lectures and courses of instruction, all the professors,—in a word, all the rich and varied resources of the university; must, in fact, be a part of the university, in the same way that the divinity school, the law school, the medical school, or any other professional school is a part of the university.

Is this asking too much? If teaching be a liberal profession, as we are fond of saying it is, why should it not be represented in the university by its professional school? Is anything more needed than to prove the great probable usefulness of such a school? If any question of comparative dignity, as between the different professions, were to arise, we might ask what are the professions now represented at the universities by professional schools. Harvard University, for example, has a divinity, a law, and a medical school. It also has a dental school, an agricultural school, and a

school of veterinary medicine, all conferring appropriate degrees. Now, any question of comparative dignity may be disposed of by remarking that a great university ought to regard the professional training of teachers as no less important a matter than the professional training of dentists, boss farmers, and horse doctors.

What I would advocate, then, is the establishment of a teachers' seminary within the precincts of every university or college whose graduates in any considerable numbers turn to teaching as a profession. And in advancing this proposition, I have in mind not the older institutions only—Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, and the rest—but the younger as well, and especially the colleges for women, which of late years have become large, and strong, and excellent. Among the female assistant teachers in our high schools, the proportion of college graduates has increased of late to a marked extent, and promises to increase still more in the future. Doubtless the women's colleges will shortly become the almost exclusive source of supply for female teachers in high schools. And as the women far outnumber the men in the teaching profession and are likely always to do so, the plan for organizing teachers' seminaries in the women's colleges becomes proportionately more interesting.

There are indications that this matter of organizing teachers' seminaries is beginning to be looked upon by university authorities in the light of a public duty or, at least, as a suggestion of intelligent self-interest. This is a thing to be grateful for,—an encouragement for our hope to feed upon.

There is no time now to go into the details of a plan

or to explain the ways of inducing favorable action on the part of university authorities. One word only I wish to say to define the relation the state should hold to the proposed seminaries. The state's interest in them would be a large one and a very direct one, inasmuch as the students in such seminaries would most of them be in training for the public school service. So large is the state's interest, that the whole cost of maintaining a separate and independent seminary of its own, unconnected with any university or college, would not be an unreasonable financial burden to assume. But if the universities can be induced to organize these seminaries, and conduct them with the aid of all existing university resources—which are many and rich—the state's money will be most economically expended in the form of subsidies. These might take the shape of *per capita* payments for all the teachers trained or, perhaps better, the shape of scholarships made tenable by suitably qualified persons who would pledge themselves to enter the public school service after their training.

By accepting the state's inducement in either form, and rendering the important public service suggested, the university could enter at once into more intimate relations with the public school system; and thus would be closed a widening gap between the two, which, in the older states at least, has become a serious matter for regret.

It is, indeed, the function of a university "to teach and to supply the world with its teachers." But if the state finds the teachers coming from the university not properly trained for their business, the state will look elsewhere for its teachers. The university ought not

to be wanting to its high functions in any respect. No state ought to be obliged to look beyond the university for all the skilled and scholarly teachers the public service may require. No teacher ought to be compelled to look elsewhere for a professional instruction the university does not give. The highest and best instruction of this kind has its natural home in the university.

My appeal, therefore, is to every teacher who is a university or college graduate to urge strenuously upon his alma mater the duty, dictated no less by intelligent self-interest than by public considerations, of establishing within her precincts a strong, well equipped, and ably officered teachers' seminary. When this has been done—when we shall hear of the Harvard Teachers' Seminary, the Yale, the Columbia, the Princeton, the Dartmouth, the Amherst, the Brown, the Williams, and the Cornell teachers' seminaries, as familiarly as we hear of their other professional schools, and when Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, and Bryn Mawr shall have their teachers' seminaries in full prosperity—then will have come to pass the things that were earnestly hoped for when the normal school movement began some fifty or sixty years ago.

DISCUSSION.

Hon. Thomas B. Stockwell, Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island, Providence. Superintendent Seaver has said that his subject has three phases: the past, the present, and the future. Of these he himself discussed two, the present and the future. Dr. Barnard will ably present the first phase, the past or historical. That the subject of his address

is thus amply covered, is sufficient reason why I should not attempt to follow him in his lines of thought. Still further, I had no knowledge what those lines of thought were to be. I was, therefore, compelled to discuss the subject, "The Professional Training of Teachers," independently of any particular treatment of it.

Normal schools, we admit, are not doing all they can do, for the reason that, with all their benefits, teachers have not yet fully enough entered into the professional spirit. This remark is also applicable to those who have not enjoyed the benefits of normal instruction. That teaching is of little value which is not the work of one imbued with the professional spirit. Hence it is of importance that the teacher use those means of self-culture by which his work may become of the greatest worth. I suggest three ways by which all may attain to this end:

1. By keeping the *true end* of the teacher's work —the moulding of character and the culture of the soul—*constantly in view*. The teacher fails perhaps to consider this end, as his attention is permitted to become absorbed in the minutiae of his work. His duty is not the mere teaching of branches of study. It is higher. He should constantly think that he is training human minds and souls, things imperishable. This motive will recast his work in nobler forms. Meeting one day on the cars a familiar face, I felt at a loss for the gentleman's name, until an incident was related which not only recalled his name as a pupil of mine, but also showed that something besides the mere Greek and Latin learned had lived in that pupil's memory and life.

2. By a close, careful study of human nature, which may enable the teacher to adapt his work to the *individual needs* of his pupils. He must study human nature professionally. He must meet his pupils, not as masses or classes, but as individuals. The touch that reaches the individual demands knowledge of the peculiarities by which pupils are differentiated. A stranger paused after church service to ask the preacher, "How did you happen to know all about me?" The preacher did not comprehend. "Your sermon meant me," was the explanation. So the pupil should feel, "That lesson meant *me*." This is the degree by which professional work is lifted above the ordinary teaching.

3. By keeping himself in sympathetic touch with his pupils, through his own study of some new subject, so that his difficulties may render him able to appreciate theirs. The teacher must come to his work in the student posture of mind, and not in that of the teacher. He must come from study, and with the recollection of study. He must not come with a sense of his fulness of knowledge. He should be conscious of his own personal weakness, ignorance, and want.

Dr. Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Conn. Within my own personal knowledge and recollection, almost the entire history of all the actual improvements in the preparation and standing of teachers has occurred. I can go back to the original record of Dr. Gallaudet, emphasizing the necessity of teachers' seminaries. Thus, you put me in the witness-box, and here I stand. We move to-day on a higher plane than the level of fifty years ago. Let me ask, What is the

teacher's qualification now at his very entrance upon professional study? Higher than then, it is that he has the example of his own teachers,—to-day how much better than the example of past teachers. Formerly, teaching was in a majority of cases routine teaching. Now the first education is under teachers having rational methods. Every school now is a more philosophical institution. We have reached that stage of organization wherein one school is preparatory to another. Forty years ago there were but three high schools in the country, and they were not the extension of a course of study below, but were independent endowed institutions. The academies were excellent in their day, but they were in the way of public schools, drawing pupils away. They were well taught, as I recollect, for one grammar school and one academy were my own school preparation. The teacher's normal department was engrafted upon the academy. Now, in this state of New York there are eight or ten normal schools. The normal school of New York is for female teachers, and colleges are devoting special attention to this class of teachers.

I should add to what exists, or is proposed in the address, provision for the education of school superintendents. I remember when there was not one superintendent of schools, and when there were but three agents of boards of education. Now, in the forty-three[1] states there are over three hundred city superintendents and over eight hundred county superintendents of schools. From the colleges and high schools come the inspectors and directors of the common schools. Organization is an art in itself. Many

[1] The forty-fourth state was admitted the day following this debate.

of the colleges might do much to educate and improve teachers professionally. Much of the assistance I have rendered has been the selection of good teachers. I am rejoiced to learn that in the new Clark University the training of superintendents is to be a part of the work done. This feature of the university work will include the art of organization, the comparison of systems both among our own states and between this country and Europe, and the study of their differences. Normal training is provided for every teacher in Europe, who must pass one year as a tentative year in actual practice of that kind of work to which he is to be appointed. Special seminaries exist for the several branches of teaching.

Mr. Joseph E. Mowry, of Providence, called upon to discuss the first topic of the morning or this theme, replied to one who asked, "What will come of all this discussion? Shall we give way to graduates of normal schools?" Not, if we succeed. The very men who advocate these schools were not trained in them. They have gained their skill by experience, a truly objective method. Mr. Stockwell said that not the Latin and Greek which we teach is our great work, but something else; and yet we are appointed and paid to teach just these things. The carpenter is called to use his coarse materials and routine labor; but when the work is done, a worthy building has risen. So, if we do our work faithfully and well, worthy character will be its product.

Principal J. C. Greenough was of the opinion that the university cannot furnish the kind of training desired. He was sorry to differ with the lecturer, and

wished that there were a practical unanimity of opinions, since we can sooner accomplish what we seek, if we are united. The universities do indeed provide for professional training in some departments, as in law and medicine; but this in these lines is practicable, because they do not change their method at all, but simply extend instruction into special fields. The normal school must, on the contrary, take up a new and distinct kind of work.

The REV. G. LEWIS PRATT, of Tivoli-on-the-Hudson, arose and sententiously remarked, *Fit faber fabricando*—the workman is made by working.

PRINCIPAL WILLIAM J. CORTHELL, of Gorham, Maine, instantly rejoined,—"Yes, we know that the workman is made by working; but how many are spoiled in the process?" The material, too, on which they work—human souls! He differed from some of the speakers and was in favor of connecting the normal college with the university; there is an advantage in the establishment of a chair of pedagogy in the university. The university in the past has sent down to us the idea that pedagogy is valueless. Let now a different influence assert itself. "Are we who had no normal training to get out of the way?" is asked. No; but let us help those that are to be our successors. The idea that knowledge of the subject is the sole requirement hinders the normal school. Let the university establish chairs of pedagogy, and then the notion will prevail that pedagogy is of value. He hoped that Massachusetts, the home of educational progress, will press this advance movement, and that

Harvard will be induced to establish its normal college. We are not responsible for what was for us, but it is our privilege to provide for those who follow us. I am not accountable for the nineteenth century and its failures, and will let it pass. I'd rather help make the twentieth century.

PRESIDENT G. STANLEY HALL declined to discuss the paper. He wished this work could be done in the university. The work of training superintendents is different from that of training teachers. Have all these superintendents here fully qualified themselves for their work? There are not so grave and open questions to-day in medicine as in pedagogy. We believe at Clark University that one of the most important ways of elevating the profession of teaching is to build from the top. We shall have one or two chairs in our faculty for this special work.

PRINCIPAL CHANNING STEBBINS, of Brooklyn, would undertake to dissent from men wiser than himself, in order to find out how this professional training makes the slightest practical difference between those trained and those improved only by experience. Where is the normal mystery? Where are the secrets locked up? Is the claim of the normal school justified? Do they have any new methods unknown to us outside? Is the best practitioner of methods the best teacher? If he knows his subject well, he must teach it well.

DR. GEORGE A. BACON, of Boston, editor of the "Academy," opposed this sentiment. He had seen plenty of men that knew their subjects thoroughly,

but could not teach well,—had seen them in England. There are English teachers of Latin who could teach ours the subject; but ours do more work with a class in one year then they do in two years. There is an art of teaching. The normal school may not impart it to everybody.

A difficulty lies in the matter of superintendents. He had seen county superintendents who could not read and write so well as a boy of ten years. At a meeting of county commissioners held in Utica in 1878, it was proposed to issue certificates only to teachers that held the Regents' Preliminary Certificate, and one commissioner remarked that not only would it throw out many of the teachers, but that half the commissioners could not pass the Regents' preliminary examination. The superintendents too often are selected, not for their fitness, but on political grounds. Men are displaced for political reasons. Back of this question, therefore, is public opinion.

VII.

THE STATE NORMAL COLLEGE—THE NEXT STEP IN NORMAL WORK.

By Thomas W. Bicknell, of Boston.

On the 2d of July, 1839, Horace Mann made the following entry in his diary:

"To-morrow we go to Lexington to launch the first normal school on this side the Atlantic, and I cannot indulge at this late hour of the night, and in my present state of fatigue, in an expression of the train of thought which the contemplation of this event awakens in my mind. Much must come of it, either of good or ill. I am sanguine in my faith that it will be the former. But the good will not come of itself. That is the reward of toil, of effort, of wisdom. These as far as possible let me furnish. Neither time, nor care, nor such thoughts as I am able to originate, shall be wanting to make this an era in the welfare and prosperity of our schools; and if it is so, it will then be an era in the welfare of mankind."

"July 3. The day opened with one of the most copious rains we have had this rainy season. Only three persons presented themselves for examination in the normal school in Lexington. In point of numbers this is not a promising commencement. What remains but more exertion, more and more until it must succeed!"

This is the brief and pathetic record of the opening chapter of American normal schools, written by their

great founder. It sounds not unlike the first chapter of Genesis, when God said, "Let there be light: and there was light. And God saw the light, that it was good. . . . And the evening and the morning were the first day."

Mr. Mann was both sage and seer, as to the value of the normal school. He saw clearly that the common school and the teacher were one—"Like teacher, like school;" that the school was elevated, or degraded, by the character and quality of the instructor; and that the first radical work of education was to improve the fountains whence the healing streams should flow. The professional school was the essential element for this great purpose; and it was his first work, the first step in his administration as an educator, to transplant the normal school from a foreign soil and make it at home in Massachusetts and America. France and Germany had enjoyed the practical benefits of the elementary training-schools for teachers for fifty years, and the schools of the people of those countries had been vastly improved. Similar results must follow the American experiment.

A half century has passed since the test was first made of elementary normal instruction in this country, and the product has more than fulfilled the expectations of the most sanguine of the founders. We now have, by the last report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 133 normal schools supported by state appropriations, with 26,116 students costing annually $1,671,761, or an average of $60+ per teacher. More than 55,000 persons have graduated from the normal schools since their establishment, and as many more have gone out to teach without a normal diploma.

These normal schools have accomplished valuable results educationally, some of which we may mention.

1. They have established higher standards of instruction for our common schools than existed before.

2. They have increased the academic knowledge of teachers by courses of study, which have not only emphasized the common branches of public school instruction, but have also widened the area of the teacher's curriculum of preparatory studies.

3. They have improved the methods of instruction, especially in the primary grades, and have made the teacher a real teacher and the pupil a real student and thinker.

4. The professional standing of the teacher has been vastly elevated by the normal school. Salaries have been advanced fourfold, the school-year has been lengthened, school-houses, text-books, apparatus, and all school material have been immensely improved.

5. By educational induction, the whole system of instruction has been elevated with certain exceptions, and the whole teaching force of the country, numbering in the common schools almost half a million of persons, at average salaries of $41.75 and $34.21 per month for men and women respectively, has been made better, intellectually, morally, and in professional ways.

While no one claims that the normal schools of the country are faultless, and while intelligent criticism would be most welcome and helpful, it is not our purpose in this article to consider their defects, but the rather to show their limitations and the fields of normal and professional work not yet reached by those now in existence, and the pressing necessity for

enlarged agencies in professional preparation. There are three very important departments of school service needing normal aid, which have arisen with and since the establishment of normal schools. These are:

1. School Supervision.
2. High Schools.
3. Normal Instruction.

I will name a fourth department of education which is in extreme need of a normal college,—college professorships.

For the equipment of persons for each and all these departments of work the present normal schools have made no adequate provision, and in the nature of the case can do but little to meet the required demands; for,—

1. The normal school has, in the majority of instances, only an elementary course of instruction of one or two years.

2. The pupils are in the main graduates of the grammar schools or high schools, with little mental discipline or acquirements.

3. Its graduates and pupils are all needed in the primary and grammar-school departments, and the demand from these quarters is not and cannot be supplied without ten times as many elementary normal schools as now exist.

4. As the candidates for the four departments named are now expected to be persons of a collegiate training, or an equivalent academic course of instruction, it is evident that the two courses could not be economically carried on under one and the same administration, any more than a high school and a college could be managed and instructed by the same faculty.

In the present stage of educational discussion and state of public sentiment, little argument, if any, is necessary to show the need of high, broad. deep qualifications for the positions of high school teachers, superintendents, normal teachers, and college professors. And it is one of the most significant signs of the hour, that with the demand from the schools springs up in the fraternity itself the want of a large professional training. As to the needs of such trained men and women in New England, we have but to refer to the annual reports of state superintendents and other school officials. As to the needs of the schools, we have a most noteworthy document in the special report of State Agent Martin, of Massachusetts, on the high schools of that commonwealth (Forty-Eighth Annual Report of the Board of Education, 1883–'84).

He says in this report: "Of the 228 schools of this grade reported, I have visited 105, spending from three to six hours in each. I have not made it my business to examine the students, but rather to study the schools, directing my attention chiefly to five points,—the relation to the lower schools, the membership and organization, the courses of study, the methods and means of teaching, and the incentives and aims." I quote from the report:

"I have found that the schools [high] are composed neither of children of the rich nor of children of the poor, but of children of the people, some rich, some poor." "In one school I found the children of the mayor of the city, of a member of congress, and of a colored barber in the same classes. In many towns I have found the children of wealthy manufacturers side by side with children of the operatives in their fathers' mills."

This is as it ought to be and reflects great credit on the good sense of the people.

"A serious defect exists in the organization of many of the larger schools. The principal gives all his time to the more advanced classes. The first-year class is in charge of the teacher who has the least experience, usually a young woman, often with little capacity for teaching or governing. This class has just come from the grammar school, from a teacher of experience, a man who has stimulated them to work by the vigor of his own thinking. On reaching the high school they lose this stimulus just as they need it most, when entering upon new lines of work. In consequence, they become indifferent and sluggish. They dawdle and lounge and play. This is especially true of the boys. I have found the most striking contrast between the highest classes in the grammar schools and the lowest class in the high schools in the same town."

"Each course of study represents the guesses or the convictions of a few men, committees or teachers, sometimes of but a single man. Often it represents a compromise of conflicting opinions. With all the differences, one thing seems to be common. The courses [of study] do not satisfy those who are using them. When asking for the course of study, I have often been told: 'We have one, but do not follow it,' or, 'We are just making a new one.'" "The simplest facts and broadest generalizations are learned together, with no conception of their relations to each other, nor of the different processes by which the knowledge is acquired. Classifications are learned before the things classified. At a time when the reflective powers chiefly should be engaged, the students are just put to

using their senses. This is true in every department, mathematics, natural sciences, history, and language."

"Rhetoric seems to be an indefinite term. . . . Text-books are used, and definitions and rules are committed and recited. The books are so poorly written and the definitions so vague, that the pupils are left to guess, in their attempt to apply the rules and definitions to the examples. General looseness and lack of point seems to characterize all this work. I have scarcely heard an exercise in rhetoric which was worth the time spent upon it."

In literature: "Much of the work is empirical, and not based on principles or convictions. The chief defect . . is superficiality. The pupils think they are studying literature, the teachers think they are teaching it, when they are only reading it or reading about it." "Some teachers have been especially commended to my notice. I have found them to be accomplished women, admirers of literary beauty; but they did not teach. The class was floated along on a stream of brilliant talk, breathing a literary atmosphere, and so supposing it was studying literature. Instead of solid work, there was only the thinnest kind of literary veneer."

In geometry: "Many of the students apparently fail to see beyond the diagram. This may be due to the fact that the work from the beginning deals wholly with abstractions, with relations existing in pure space."

In history: "Much of the work . . is the narrowest kind of task-work, having in it no element of teaching. The text-book is the only source of information. The lessons are assigned by pages and chapters. The daily class-exercise is a mere catechetical examination, and

most of the questioning violates every educational principle. In one school, each pupil was called upon to recite the whole lesson without questions. While each one was reciting, the others were studying. In another school, as the pupils hesitated, the teacher gave the first words of the paragraph. Then, losing his place in the book, he remarked, 'I do n't quite see where you are working.'"

The exercises in history "which I have described were in city high schools, and conducted by graduates of colleges. Indeed, those conducting the last three exercises were graduates from the same college for women. My observation leads me to conclude that untrained teachers are much alike, whether they have been graduated from a college or only from a district school."

In natural science: "The instruction throughout this department is based on the text-book, and in a majority of cases is almost wholly confined to it. I have seen about one hundred and sixty class exercises in natural science; one hundred and thirty of these were text-book recitations." "Taking the schools as a whole, it appears that the scientific method has scarcely more than obtained a foothold. A distinguished writer has said: 'We cannot give to the students science; we can make them scientific.' In a majority of schools there is little attempt to make the students scientific, and the attempt to give them science fails;" and mainly, Mr. Martin says farther on, "from the fact that many of the teachers have not been trained in the modern scientific method." "That so few of the teachers have themselves been scientifically trained, is the chief cause of the defective teaching. Many with

ample time and means continue to use the traditional methods. I found the dust accumulating in one of the finest laboratories in the State, in a school with abundant teaching force."

"If the pupils have not previously learned to observe, these teachers cannot show them how, for they do not know how. So the blind lead the blind." "Quite frequently teachers tell me, by way of explanation of unscientific science teaching: 'We teach as we were taught in college.' One who is doing excellent work said: 'I am trying to teach better than I was taught.' If this testimony is true, and it seems to come from competent witnesses, there is little hope of improving the methods in the high schools, until better methods are used in the colleges which now supply most of the teachers."

I have quoted thus extensively from Mr. Martin's report, for two reasons,—first, to give a larger publicity to his excellent and, I believe, very honest study of our Massachusetts high schools; and to show, secondly, what I believe to be true, that our best teaching is to be found to-day in our primary schools, and that it depreciates as we advance to our higher grades, until in our colleges we find learning devoid of teaching ability in a great body of our professional chairs;—and if we had a commissioner to investigate our college systems and methods, we should find in many the traditional text-book methods of the fathers, instead of the scientific methods which hold in real normal instruction, which some of the colleges have up to a recent date treated with the most studied contempt. But what is true of Massachusetts is in as great measure true of the secondary instruction throughout New Eng-

land. Notable, praiseworthy exceptions there are, and always will be; but they only serve to emphasize our position, that the great need educationally of New England is a normal college, to enable students coming from our colleges for men and women and intending to make some form of educational service their life work, to learn the principles of the profession into which they are to enter. With the general admission, correspondent to the public demand, that our superintendents of education of all grades, our high school teachers, our normal school teachers, and our college professors shall be college graduates or persons of an equivalent training, there follows, naturally and normally, that all such persons shall by nature and experience become apt to teach, through the aid of all the agencies which ancient or modern thought can devise and make serviceable.

It is greatly to the credit of the high school teachers of Massachusetts, that the movement to create a normal college for college graduates and those of equal scholastic acquisitions, springs from their own conscious needs.

As the result (1) of a discussion held at a meeting of the New-England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Oct. 11, 1889, (2) of a conference of the high school masters of the state held Jan. 18 of the present year, and (3) of several recent discussions in the state board of education, the following resolves have been prepared, under the sanction of the last named board:

Resolved, That the state board of education is hereby authorized and directed to establish a state normal college in the city of Boston, the object of which shall be to furnish professional and

technical instruction and training to college graduates and persons of equivalent education, of both sexes, who are preparing themselves for teaching in the public schools of higher grade in this commonwealth; it being understood that the same rules as to privileges and restrictions of pupils shall apply as are applied in the existing state normal schools.

Resolved, That the sum of $15,000 is hereby appropriated for the current year, for salaries of teachers, fees of lecturers, rent of rooms, and incidental expenses, the same to be applied and expended under the direction of the state board of education.

The following is a brief statement of some of the reasons given, which render the establishment of such a state normal college desirable:

1. Teachers in high schools should be persons of high intellectual attainments and of a scholarly spirit. Such attainments and such a spirit are best secured through prolonged contact with liberal studies during the formative period of life,—in other words, through a collegiate training. That high school teachers should be college graduates is now generally assumed, not only in theoretical discussions, but also in the actual selection of such teachers by the school committees of the commonwealth.

2. But the colleges, while furnishing a liberal education, afford no facilities for the professional training of those who intend to become teachers. Their graduates have no knowledge of the history and philosophy of education, or of the art of teaching, and they have had no practice in teaching high school subjects under expert criticism. For want of specific preparation for their work, they are obliged to gain such facility as they ultimately acquire through the costly method of experiment on the young people intrusted to their care. This is not said in disparagement of the col-

leges. It is not their function to furnish professional training.

3. There is, therefore, a pressing need of an institution which shall do for college graduates and other persons of equivalent attainments, who intend to become teachers in high schools, what the existing normal schools now do for persons of less extensive attainments, who intend to become teachers in elementary schools. Such an institution should be established within easy reach of the largest number of the best schools and teachers of the commonwealth, in order that those who are to be trained in it may have opportunities for study, observation, and practice under the inspiration and guidance of the most accomplished masters of the art of instruction. It should be characterized by the following features:

1. Management, Location, Tuition. It should be under the control of the state board of education; its head-quarters should be in Boston; the tuition should be free.

2. Requisites for Admission. Only college graduates or persons of equivalent attainments should be admitted as students.

3. Length of Course. The length of the course should be a year of thirty-six weeks.

4. Prescribed Course of Study. The prescribed course of study should include the history of education, the philosophy of education, the art of teaching, and practice in teaching high school subjects under expert criticism. The instruction in this department should be mainly given by the principal of the school.

5. Elective Courses of Study. The elective courses should include most of the subjects commonly taught

in the high schools of Massachusetts. The instruction in these subjects should be given by secondary or collegiate teachers of ripe experience and acknowledged skill in their several departments. It should be assumed that the student has already acquired a good working knowledge of the subjects which he elects and which he wishes to teach, and the instruction should be planned with special reference to the best methods of teaching these subjects in secondary schools. Moreover, the instruction in the elective subjects should be given in the class-room or the laboratory, in which the instructor meets his regular classes; and the students, in addition to the instruction they receive, should have opportunity for observation and practice under the eye of the instructor.

4. If it be urged that the existing normal schools, through their advanced courses of study, are fitted to discharge the functions of such a normal college as is proposed, it must be said in answer, that, during the many years which have elapsed since these advanced courses were organized, they have failed to do so. College graduates do not, and should not, resort to training-schools in which they must be classified with students who are greatly inferior to them in acquired knowledge and in mental maturity. Moreover, the few who have made the experiment testify that the instruction they have received is too elementary to meet their needs. This is no reflection on the existing normal schools. On the contrary, it is high commendation. It shows that they have wisely adjusted their methods of instruction and rate of progress to the needs of their actual students.

At the monthly meeting of the Massachusetts Board

of Education, on March 6, 1890, the report of the committee relative to the establishment of a high grade normal school was taken up and discussed; and it was

Voted, To authorize the committee to appear before the legislative Committee on Education and ask for an appropriation for the establishment of a high grade normal school for the technical training of teachers.

At a meeting of the New-England Normal Council, held in Boston in April, 1890, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the New-England Normal Council approves the establishment of institutions for the professional preparation of teachers for normal schools, high schools, colleges, and of school superintendents.

The following letters from prominent educators are self-explanatory:

WORCESTER, April 7, 1890.

My Dear Sir: Since the matter was first discussed in our board, I have learned that there is a more anxious feeling among some of the best and most progressive educators of the state to establish a normal college for a higher class of teachers. The present normal schools do excellently the work for which they were established; but it seems to me there is a necessity of establishing a higher branch, and your plan, if adopted, would fill the bill for the present. Very truly yours,

E. B. STODDARD.

State Board of Education.

Dear Sir: In regard to the proposed high grade normal school, it seems to me not only an expedient, but an absolutely wise and necessary, measure. Such a school would be the fit consummation of the work so nobly planned by Mr. Dickinson and would supply our high schools with teachers as well trained as are now

the teachers in the grammar schools. I trust that Massachusetts will lead, not follow, in this matter.

Yours respectfully,

KATE GANNETT WELLS,
Member State Board of Education.

April 22, 155 Boylston St.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 23, 1890.

My Dear Sir: I have always wished the colleges of the state to direct the higher professional training of the teaching profession; but I see no immediate prospect of their undertaking it, and I therefore hope to see the state enter upon this plan, which the highest grade teachers cordially approve and of which they feel immediate and pressing needs.

ALICE FREEMAN PALMER.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE, WELLESLEY, MASS.

Dear Sir: . . . I know you must feel sure of my deep interest in this effort to secure so valuable an adjunct to our school system, as the normal college would be, and will not doubt that I would have been glad to aid in any way that I could.

March 29, 1890. HELEN A. SHAFER.

REGENTS' OFFICE, ALBANY, N. Y.,
April 28, 1890.

Dear Sir: Your inquiry to Principal Robinson of the high school has been sent over to me. The change from normal school to normal college was made, not by the legislature, but by the Regents who in this state grant charters to colleges, give power to confer degrees, etc. In explanation of our organization, I send you the laws and ordinances, and also an address of mine last July. It is the purpose to maintain one real normal *college* in this state, and to make its teaching give it rank as a professional school side by side with our law and medical schools. . . . It will of course take some years to bring about the complete

change; but the standard is set and New York means to keep as near the head as possible, not forgetting how large an undertaking it is. Very truly yours,

MELVIL DEWEY,
Secretary Board of Regents.

It has been suggested that three courses are practicable for the establishment of a normal college. The first is, that the colleges add an elective course in didactics or pedagogy, for such students as are candidates for teaching.

The second, that the normal schools now existing add a fourth year to their present courses of instruction, for the special training of advanced students in pedagogics.

The third, that the state shall establish a separate and independent normal college, for the classes above named, with special reference to the study of the history of education, the philosophy of education, educational methods, material, systems, relationships of departments, etc. While ready to welcome the co-operation of all agencies which may be established to advance the educational work, it seems to us that the advantages in favor of an independent state normal college are far superior to either of the other plans, for the following reasons, among others:

1. The normal college should be under state control, as its graduates are to be employed in the main for the public schools. Unity in educational matters could be secured only by state management, as under the present normal school system.

2. From the whole state, a sufficient number of students would be found to maintain a proper attendance.

3. The college should be at the centre of population, as Boston, where buildings, libraries, schools of all grades, laboratories, and instructors as specialists could be easily obtained and utilized.

4. The expense of the separate college would be less than instruction at existing colleges. A few thousands of dollars would secure buildings, instructors, and all the necessary material for such a college at Boston. A chair of pedagogy at each college would require a permanent fund of $50,000, besides the cost of pedagogical libraries, museums, etc., etc. Of all the New-England colleges, Harvard and Yale are the only possible competitors for pedagogical students, and it is probable that Harvard only would attempt the work for its students, in any instance. The testimony on this point is entirely against the work being done at all, or, if attempted, done satisfactorily by the colleges.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. James M. Milne, Oneonta Normal School, New York. I confess to a feeling of embarrassment. I am asked to take the place of the honorable state superintendent; but I suppose it is on the principle that a pawn is better than a blank. New York people believe in the idea of the speaker, Mr. Bicknell. Normal schools have always had two purposes: 1. The acquisition of the facts to be learned. 2. The gaining of strength from facts acquired. The two alternative propositions before us are: 1. The university; 2. The normal college.

1. Can the university do this work? What experi-

ence is there? What *art* of teaching is there? What opportunity is there to develop the chief element of a teacher's power, that of control? Where shall the university students get that power? 2. How is it in the normal college? There, all academic work is dropped; and the aim is the professional training of teachers and their mastery of educational theory. Such an institution is the New York Normal College, an institution which does not exist merely on paper. We New York people are proud of this advance movement, as we are always proud when we get ahead of Massachusetts. You had Horace Mann. We admire him; we honor him. In front of our normal school we planted two trees. We dedicated one to Horace Mann, the other to Andrew S. Draper, under whom we had taken this step confidently, not toddling Iulus-like. The high schools have been growing, along with the normal schools. Let the high schools go on and complete their work, and then leave to the normal schools to do strictly pedagogical work. Let us not have the experience of other countries, which have tried to combine these two departments and have had to go back.

There, the high schools and academies had not been developed. It is very well for the colleges to come now, when the lump has been leavened. It needs better training to teach in the primary school than anywhere else. It requires practice in the art, too. What would you say of a surgeon, who had only the knowledge gained from lectures, and nothing learned from practical experiments? Would you employ him? It is well to have an educational department in college. Put into it the history and theories of education, from the days of Aristotle to those of Froebel; but also have a

normal college which shall develop them in conjunction with professional practice.

ADMIRAL P. STONE, LL.D., of the Massachusetts Board of Education, Springfield, Mass. Some men think that the normal idea has been carried as far as it can be. Not yet. When the pyramids were finished, some doubtless thought the work of the world was done, and said: "Let us turn our faces to the sun and die." Three things need no defence: Plymouth Rock, Niagara Falls, and the normal idea. Ninety per cent. of the school population of Massachusetts are within reach of a free high school. In many places, these schools have no lady assistant that is not a college graduate. Her work requires this preparation. Our present normal schools have no need to leave their own field of work. The demand for higher teachers is greater than the supply. Vassar, Wellesley, and the other colleges are turning out graduates who are to teach and who need some professional or normal training in order to do the best work. There is an actual demand on the part of the high school principals for a normal institution of this kind. Pedagogy requires it. Let us establish it, and we shall find that we have made no mistake.

MR. RAY GREENE HULING, New Bedford, Mass. My contribution to this debate will be a bit of modern history. If, as a result of hearing it, you should conclude that within the year there has been a remarkable conversion of opinion in college circles on the main question now under discussion, I shall not dispute your logic.

Last October, at a meeting of some one hundred persons from all New England, about half representing colleges and the remainder preparatory and high schools, the duty of the colleges to make provisions for the training of teachers for secondary schools was under discussion. The men from the schools generally felt that this duty was imperative, and that the plan was a feasible one. A gentleman from a Rhode Island college agreed with them; but the other speakers from the colleges quite generally took an opposite view. The president of a Massachusetts college argued that it was the duty of universities to provide for professional instruction in teaching; but that the smaller colleges ought not to provide instruction in pedagogy. He added: "Let us justly demand the maintenance of a thorough professional school for teachers of the higher grades. . . . Possibly some of the normal schools could profitably be made over into high normal schools."

The president of another Massachusetts college drew attention to the serious difficulties in the way of providing such instruction, but pointed out ways of removing them in the near future, and hoped that it would be done.

The president of still another Massachusetts college made further mention of the difficulties, and expressed the opinion that, in college or university, the way to advance the profession of teaching is to teach the subjects which are to be taught in the colleges and high schools and academies in the best manner we can. Alluding to recent changes in methods of teaching, notably in natural science and in Latin and Greek, he asked what good it would do to teach the old methods

and claimed that it was by developing new methods of teaching subjects that colleges make teachers best equipped for their work. Again, the small number of persons who make teaching a profession was urged as a reason for not attempting to teach the philosophy of education. Continuing, he said: "I think, too, we may offer another apology for not having attempted to teach the history of the higher education. It is the most terrible history in the world, and it is the most depressing thing for any human being, because there is no good history of teaching and no history of good teaching. There are no more discouraging biographies than those of men and women who give an account of their education. I should not, however, like to be considered as discouraging this education. I should welcome very heartily the changing of one of our normal schools in this state into a really high normal school, in which all the topics which are grouped together under the general term of pedagogy could be taught and studied."

The president of a Connecticut college expressed his essential agreement with the views above given. Said he: "What our preparatory education can and ought to do is, to give the graduate the knowledge, and, if possible, the common sense, which will enable him to use it. Then let him practice." He would not, however, oppose the general view that more attention should be given to the study of pedagogy.

I need not tell you that the outcome of the debate was quite discouraging to those who hoped for action by the colleges in providing pedagogical instruction. In the following January, the matter was again brought into prominence by a conference of some fifty high

school masters of Massachusetts, which resulted in a letter to the state board of education approving a proposition to establish on the part of the state a new normal school, which should receive only students with a collegiate education, or an equivalent therefor, and should train them to be teachers in secondary schools. A bill to this effect was prepared and introduced in the state legislature. It failed, however; and the failure is popularly ascribed to two opposing influences,—certain friends of the existing normal schools, who wished that the proposed work should be done within the normal agencies now existing, and certain friends of the colleges, who desired that the work should be undertaken by the college or the university and who believed that it would be.

To my mind, the particular way of securing this better training in pedagogy is not so important as the thing itself. I favor a separate school under control of the state. But I would welcome any means whatever by which the high school teachers of New England shall be more effectively trained for their special work.

SUPERINTENDENT EDWIN P. SEAVER, of Boston. I beg to say a word, just to put our friends here on their guard against the remarks of the last speaker and some statements of the paper read. They say that the colleges won't do this work. I believe the colleges will do it. A certain college president has been here quoted, though not by name; but every one knows who is meant. Now, at that meeting, to which the last speaker referred, a proposition was broached; but it was entirely new. The discussion that followed was

rather of the nature of a conversation: participants spoke from the top of their minds. The inference cannot be fairly drawn that a great university has pronounced itself against the plan of a normal college within the university. This discussion is not yet a year old. There are ways of convincing a practical-minded president. Wait, and the colleges will do this required work, and thus close up the gap which now exists between them and the public school system. The high schools have grown rapidly; but they have displaced the academies which filled a somewhat different field and which were very useful. You cannot succeed in the best way, until the university takes up this higher normal training.

HON. JAMES W. PATTERSON, of New Hampshire. Whether normal schools shall or shall not be a part of our organic system of public instruction is no longer a tentative question. It has been settled by a wide experience, that professional schools are as essential to secure the best work in teaching as in law or medicine. Normal schools passed beyond the realm of experiment years ago, both in Europe and America. The problem is, Shall we have normal colleges to do for the higher teaching what the normal schools have done for the lower? The experiment of training teachers for the higher departments of the profession is in successful operation in France.

The question at issue in this debate is, Whether in our country this advanced normal work shall be done in separate institutions established for the purpose or in pedagogical departments opened in existing colleges and universities.

Studying this question in the light of history, we should as soon expect a revival of religion in sheol as the origination of a pedagogical department in one of our old colleges or universities, established for the pursuit of the humanities. Schools of learning are conservative and cling to established customs and courses of study. They naturally look backward and not forward. The natural sciences even had to be forced into their curricula by a demand from the outside. They look upon the accumulation of knowledge and not the art of communicating it, as the end to be sought in an institution of learning.

But if the addition of such a department to our collegiate institutions should seem to those in control to be desirable, most of them are too poor to establish it. Such departments will have to await private endowments.

Clark University will naturally be an exception to the rule; for it opens when the idea of normal instruction is popular, and there is at its head a gentleman who is up with the times in these matters. Public sentiment, I mean educated public sentiment, must force the old colleges to establish departments of normal instruction of the higher grades in which both the philosophy and the best methods of teaching shall be taught. The public sentiment which demands this change will doubtless bring with it the money which shall make it possible.

I apprehend that the state will have to take the lead in this movement and found a normal college as a part of our public educational system, before it can become popular and general in private institutions. Our present normal schools fit for work in the common schools, but not for teaching in high schools and colleges.

My state may not be able to lead off in this movement; but, as she instituted the second, if not the first, school in this country for the training of teachers, she will be sure to follow hard after the state which takes the lead.

Some intelligent people pronounce normal schools a "delusion and a fraud." Normal graduates have sometimes failed as active teachers for want of knowledge, and so brought disgrace upon the system. A study of methods without a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught can never make a good teacher. Put a dunce in at one end of the course, and he will come out a dunce at the other. Knowledge must come first; then, the study of how to teach it to others.

PRINCIPAL J. C. GREENOUGH, of Westfield Normal School, Massachusetts. I call attention to the fact that the teaching force in the public high schools is largely composed of women, and that this question has been argued and pushed by a woman, for years the president of Wellesley. She tried the experiment in Stone Hall, but she gave it up. She went abroad and observed. She now says that Wellesley cannot do this work. I met President Seelye, of Smith College, and he said that this work must be done by a professional school whose province it is to do it. This kind of school is coming. It may come through the college, but it must be by endowment and not by subsidies. Means will surely be provided.

Mr. BICKNELL, in closing the debate, recapitulated the arguments presented in favor of the establishment of the State Normal College and reviewed the position of the opponents of the measure.

VIII.

THE PLACE OF NATURAL SCIENCE IN THE EDUCATIONAL COURSE.

By Prof. William North Rice, Ph. D., LL. D., of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

I suppose I have been invited to occupy a few minutes of your time this year chiefly because I invited myself a year ago. At the request of the Committee on Science Teaching, appointed by the American Society of Naturalists, a place was courteously accorded to me as their representative in the programme of your meeting at Bethlehem a year ago—a place which, greatly to my regret, I was prevented by illness from filling. I conceive, therefore, that I appear before you to-day in a *quasi* representative capacity; and I deem it right to say somewhat in regard to the character of the society which I represent, especially as I believe that thereby my words will acquire a weight which as the utterance of a single individual they would not have.

The Society of Naturalists is composed exclusively of professional workers in the departments of biology and geology, and chiefly of those who are engaged in teaching those branches. The majority of its hundred and fifty members are professors of biology or geology in the colleges and other higher institutions of the north-eastern states of the Union. The aim of the society is unique. It receives no memoirs on scientific discoveries, and it publishes no proceedings. Its

meetings are occupied with discussion of methods of carrying on the work in which its members are engaged—methods of investigation, methods of museum administration, methods of instruction. It is therefore largely an educational society, and a considerable part of the time of its meetings has been occupied with the discussion of methods of teaching the various sciences.

But, in studying our work as teachers of science, we are inevitably brought face to face with the truth, that our success in teaching science in college depends greatly upon the preparation with which our students come to college; or, as we must say in too many cases, our failure in the attempt to teach science in college is largely due to the lack of preparation for such work on the part of our students. The relation of our work in college to the studies of the lower schools is so intimate, that we have been led naturally and inevitably to consider what is desirable in the line of scientific study before the student enters college.

Much of the time in the last three annual meetings of the Society of Naturalists has been occupied in the discussion of this subject; and, while there is much difference of opinion on details, there is general agreement upon certain principles. The following propositions from the report, unanimously adopted at our meeting in Baltimore, December, 1888, and reaffirmed at our meeting in New York, December, 1889, will serve to formulate our views:

"1. Instruction in natural science should commence in the lowest grades of the primary schools and should continue throughout the curriculum.

"2. In the lower grades the instruction should be chiefly by means of object lessons, and the aim should

be to awaken and guide the curiosity of the child in regard to natural phenomena, rather than to present systematized bodies of fact and doctrine.

"3. More systematic instruction in the natural sciences should be given in the high schools.

"4. While the sciences can be more extensively pursued in the English course in the high schools than is practicable in the classical course, it is indispensable for a symmetrical education, that a reasonable amount of time should be devoted to natural science, during the four years of the high school course, by students preparing for college.

"5. An elementary (but genuine and practical) acquaintance with some one or more departments of natural science should be required for admission to college."

It is with hearty gratification that I observe the harmony between these propositions and the views that found expression in the Bethlehem meeting of the American Institute. I am sure that, in addressing this association, I have an audience in cordial sympathy with the reform which we are advocating.

It is unnecessary at this day to argue for the value of the study of natural science, as regards both information and discipline. That is now conceded, and in almost all our colleges a sufficiently prominent position is accorded to scientific studies.

But the condition of the lower schools in regard to science is very different. There is generally little or no study of natural science below the high school. In most high schools, fair provision is made for the study of science; but that provision is available only for those in the English course, the students preparing for col-

lege being generally entirely shut up to the classical and mathematical studies required for admission to college.

Two most deplorable results follow from these conditions: first, since comparatively few children reach the high schools, the vast majority of the rising generation are left entirely destitute of that knowledge and discipline which the study of science can afford; secondly, those who by collegiate and university training are marked out as the intellectual leaders of their generation, and who, both for their own sake and for the sake of others, should receive an education as normal and philosophical as may be in scope and method, are allowed to engage in the study of nature only at a time too late for the best results—at a time when the curiosity and love of nature which are instinctive in childhood have been extinguished by persistent repression during the ten years or more of school life.

A sound system of education must take account of the natural order of development of the mental faculties. Nor need we be in any doubt as to what that order is. The perceptive faculties are the earliest to be developed; later come into activity the powers of abstract thought; later still does consciousness become reflective and reveal the world of mind. The attention of a healthy and normally developing child is given almost exclusively to the phenomena of the external world. The questions which he asks his parents and other adult friends (if he has not been snubbed too many times in such questioning) relate almost exclusively to objects of sense around him. There are, indeed, miraculous children, who speculate about the nature of the soul almost before they molt the long

dresses of babyhood; but such children usually die of precocious genius or early piety on the brain and may therefore be disregarded in any discussion of general education. Young children in process of normal development are what some one has called the Buddhists—"unconscious materialists." They do not disbelieve in a spiritual world; they ignore it.

The early development of the perceptive faculties produces in the young child's mind a natural curiosity in regard to sensible objects and therefore a natural aptitude for their study. There are three ways in which we may deal with this mental tendency. First, we may leave the child's curiosity about the external world to unrestrained and unguided indulgence. We may let the child run wild through field and forest, chase butterflies, rob birds' nests, and fill his pockets with caterpillars. He will grow up a young savage, with somewhat of a savage's field-craft and wood-craft, but with very little of valuable intellectual development. Secondly, we may repress the child's natural curiosity. And, in fact, that is about what is usually done. The child is taught to read as early as possible, and then the idea is sedulously inculcated that reading is the strait and narrow way that leadeth unto intellectual life. The story of Sir William Jones's mother answering all her son's questions with the words, "Read, and you will know," is told with express and implied encomiums upon her wisdom and her son's consequent vast erudition. Verily, the ghost of that good woman haunts our schools like a malignant spirit. The climax of success is reached when the little monk is snugly cloistered with his books, oblivious of the very existence of a world of light and music around

him. And, if he grows up to be one of the favored few who are permitted to enter the sacred precincts of the college and there take up the long-deferred study of nature, he finds too often his powers of observation well-nigh atrophied by long disuse. I speak strongly, because I speak from experience. I feel daily that the efficiency of my work as a student and teacher of science is impaired by that vice of early education which repressed rather than developed whatever powers of observation nature had given. My professional life has been a perpetual struggle to rid myself of some of the mental habitudes induced by an unnatural education. I have not yet quite freed myself from the influence of Sir William Jones's mother. And what I have felt in myself I have seen in my students. It is worse than making bricks without straw, to teach natural science to college juniors and seniors in whom disuse has wrought so complete an atrophy of the powers of observation, that they hardly know that there is an external universe.

The reform for which we plead, then, is the introduction of natural sciences early in the educational course. While the reform is one in spirit, there are two phases of it which require distinct mention, since the appeal must be made to distinct constituencies. The first of these is the introduction of science work in the primary and grammar schools, commencing with simple and somewhat desultory object lessons and proceeding gradually to somewhat more systematic study. For this we must appeal to state boards of education, to the normal schools, and to the local authorities of counties, cities, and towns. The other phase of the reform is the including of a reasonable amount of

science in the classical courses in the high schools and academies and in the requirements for admission to college. For this we must appeal to the college faculties and boards of trustees. The schools are ready to furnish the instruction when the colleges will require it.

With this twofold reform accomplished, our educational courses, whether long or short, will be, as now they are not, symmetrical, normally related to psychological development, and in scope and spirit truly liberal.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. D. W. Hoyt, Principal of the Providence high school, expressed his approval of all the main positions assumed by Professor Rice.

The word "place" in the subject under discussion involves two points:

1. What is accomplished by the study of natural science?

2. At what point of time in the education of the child should the study be commenced, and how long should it be continued?

The answer to the second question manifestly depends upon the answer to the first. Both have been fully discussed by the speaker in the address to which we have listened and in the excellent monograph upon this topic published by Professor Rice.

One purpose of education is the acquisition of useful knowledge. Next in importance to man's knowledge of himself, of his physical and mental powers,

is his knowledge of his environment. He is placed in this material world, and it is essential that he should understand, to some extent at least, the forces and material things by which he is surrounded and by which he must be affected. The study in question furnishes just this kind of knowledge. The relation of this class of studies to the second purpose of education, the training of the powers of mind and body, has been fully discussed in the monograph already mentioned. There is time for but one remark relating to the perceptive faculties. Perception, like memory, may work well only in certain lines. We perceive that which we have been accustomed and trained to perceive. Because a man sees quickly a Greek accent, it does not follow that he will readily see a natural object in all its details; and the converse is equally true. The perceptive powers should then be cultivated in the lines which will be most useful in after life.

As to the second and most important general head, *when* the study should be pursued, Mr. Hoyt expressed approval of the position of the previous speaker. As the perceptive faculties are naturally the first to develop, so the studies which specially train these powers should be introduced at an early period in the course of training, and they should be pursued continuously, not intermittently. Especially should some training in science be required for admission to college. The reasons for this have been well presented by Professor Rice. But the study of science should be pursued in classical schools, even if it is not required for admission to college. These schools should adopt the course of study best fitted to secure the high-

est good of the pupils, not that which will merely admit them to college.[1]

Mr. Hoyt made a plea for the study of physical science, as well as the natural sciences, so called. He urged the study of physics, especially for city boys, whose facilities for collecting natural objects are not equal to those of country boys. This difficulty of procuring natural objects is a great one for all city pupils, girls as well as boys. The boy, at least, delights to make something, as well as to find something. The study of physics may cultivate the constructive power.

The study of plants was commended, though, in some localities at least, boys are disposed to look upon botany as a girls' study. Something of physiology and physical geography should be included, with more study, perhaps, of minerals and rocks and less of zoölogy, than seems to be recommended in the scheme of Professor Rice.

The training in the lower schools should not be such necessarily, as to require scientific specialists, but such as to awaken the powers of pupils, and keep them active along this line, while they are at the same time pursuing other lines of study. Teaching, to be effective, must be based upon the objects themselves.

A little girl was accustomed to spend much of her time upon the seashore in summer, observing and collecting the plants, the stones, and especially the animals. One day her handkerchief was not forthcoming, when called for by her mother. It was found that the child had wrapped it around her collection of small crabs and then concealed it in her pocket. On reaching home one crab was missing, but the delighted child soon found it crawling over her clothing. The same girl afterwards spent years almost exclusively in the study of Latin, Greek, and mathematics. She is now a student in college, and her friends are striving to revive her love of natural objects and her "powers of observation, well-nigh atrophied by long disuse."

One difficulty is, that the plants, the minerals, the rocks, and the physical features, with which the teacher is already familiar, may not be those which are common in the locality where he is called to teach. In this respect physics has an advantage. But this unfamiliarity with the region is not wholly a disadvantage; for the teacher will then be obliged to be a learner himself, and this may give additional zest to his teaching.

In coming to this place through any of the hilly states of New England, one must have observed how man locates his railways. He does not usually lay his rails straight towards the point he expects ultimately to reach. He follows the watercourses which nature has marked out for him, the same paths the Indian trod, and along which the civilization of the white settler progressed. So we should follow the leading of nature in arranging our courses of study. Sometimes, it is true, the railway engineer finds it necessary to construct a Hoosac tunnel. So, in our work, we may sometimes aim directly at a given point, irrespective of the obstacles nature has placed in our way; but this course involves such an expenditure of time and energy as only some great exigency can justify, and it may prove, to all concerned, "a great bore."

PROFESSOR RICE (closing debate). I should like to adopt the practice of the member of congress who asks leave to print and so puts into the record of proceedings what is never really spoken from the floor of congress. Indeed, I have already availed myself of that liberty; and my views on several of the topics discussed by Mr. Hoyt are presented fully in the mono-

graph to which he has so kindly referred. As to the larger place given to botany and zoölogy than to mineralogy and geology, in the earlier years of the course, the reason for such preference is, that some of the conceptions of the former sciences are much more easily grasped by the child than those of the latter sciences. The really important characters of minerals, their chemical and crystallographic characteristics, are wholly incomprehensible to a child who has not studied chemistry and geometry. The characters of animals and plants are more easily apprehended by the child. The important ideas of geology involve reasonings in regard to cause and effect, which are much less suited to the mind of childhood than the consideration of the forms of animal and vegetable structures. A further question is, What sciences should be prescribed for admission to college? Botany, physiology, and physical geography are the studies recommended by the Committee of the Society of Naturalists. It is, however, far less important that one science rather than another should be chosen, than that the requirement of some science should be secured.

SUPERINTENDENT EDWIN P. SEAVER, of Boston. I wish to ask Professor Rice a question. Has the Society of Naturalists made any suggestion as to the removal of a difficulty met with in cities, in the way of obtaining materials for object lessons in science? The difficulty is so serious as to be a practical obstacle. It must in some way be removed. How? Half the teachers in a city are unable to obtain the proper material. They would teach science from nature; but the

pupils cannot bring the natural specimens necessary. I know an instance where request was made by the teacher for the specimens required. For the first lesson, the specimens were obtained without apparent difficulty. The second time, no specimens were brought. The teacher in surprise asked the reason. Fifty hands and voices made answer: "The 'cops' would n't let us." The teachers are willing, the pupils are eager; but the material is wanting.

PROFESSOR RICE. The difficulty is to be met in various ways, but not without expense. Specimens that are not perishable, as in mineralogy for example, may be obtained and kept as a permanent collection. Perishable materials, as botanical and some zoölogical specimens, must be procured through a system of supply. The regular system of contract to supply the Boston high schools with materials seems a direct and practical way to meet the difficulty. Saturday afternoon excursions to parks or rural suburbs and visits to museums are another means.

IX.

SCHOOL INSTRUCTION IN MORALS AND MANNERS.

By John Tetlow, A. M., Head-Master of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston, Mass.

A year ago last December, the Committee on Educational Progress of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association presented a report on moral training in the public schools. This report, as appears from the introductory paragraphs, was prepared under the stimulus of certain criticisms with which the prevailing optimism of a previous report on "Progress in Grammar School Education" had been received.

A few months later, the *Christian Register*, impelled doubtless by the hostile attitude of the Roman Catholic press and clergy towards the public schools and by the consequent growth of the parochial school system, devoted several pages of one of its issues to a discussion of moral instruction in the public schools.

Not long afterwards a member of the Boston School Board, stirred perhaps by a sense of official responsibility for the obstreperous self-assertion and resentful behavior under correction which mark the manners of many of our youth, introduced an order, at a stated meeting of the board, looking to the enlargement of the school courses of study by the addition of instruction in morals and manners. Within a fortnight of the announcement of this order, the *Evening Transcript*, at that time the official organ of the Boston School

Board, ascertained through a member of its editorial staff and published at length the views of several gentlemen who were, or had been, officially connected with the schools of that city, on the subject of the proposed order. The Committee on Examinations, to whom the order was referred, reported that it was expedient to make provision for such instruction, and the school board has recently made such provision.

It would seem, from this brief survey of recent events, that the behavior of youth is attracting general attention in the community, and that the present therefore is an unusually favorable time for the discussion of the subject of school instruction in morals and manners.

And, first, let me say that instruction in manners presupposes instruction in morals and that no instruction in manners is worthy of the name that is not based on instruction in morals. This is only another way of saying that manners have no value except as they are the expression of morals. The body is the mirror of the soul, and fine manners are the image in which are reflected the noble thoughts and impulses of the soul. If you would train a boy to have the manners of a gentleman, you must first train him to be a gentleman. When you have done that, you have done your work; for the manners of a gentleman will appear spontaneously as the natural outward expression of the inward character. While, then, morals and manners are separable in thought, in life and therefore in education they are inseparable.

Of course, I am speaking here not of the superficial manners which, under the name of deportment, are taught in the dancing-school, still less of the conven-

tional observances which, under the name of etiquette, originate in courts or other artificially organized societies and make their way by the law of imitation through the lower social strata. With etiquette in its strictest sense, the public schools have nothing to do; for etiquette, as such, contributes nothing valuable to the formation of character. The interests which the schools have in charge are too precious, their work is too serious, and their aims are too noble to be confounded with the claims of etiquette. We may not waste the pupil's time or fritter away his resources, in the cultivation of mere conventional decorum. I am speaking rather of universal manners: manners which have a natural, not an artificial, origin, which spring from the impulses of a good heart acting under the regulative control of a sound mind. Such manners, I repeat, in education as in life are indissolubly associated with morals. What, then, are some of the indispensable qualifications of the teacher who is to train his pupils in manners?

First of all, he must be sincere, must be genuine, —in a word, must be truthful in the largest sense. Brusque manners with sincerity in a teacher are far preferable to polished manners with disingenuousness. A pupil is rarely deceived by manners that are assumed for effect, that are merely official and ornamental; and, whether he is deceived or not, he is morally injured by them. The teacher who has ever so smooth a varnish of external manners, but at the same time wants candor, who perhaps stings his pupils into the exact observance of the proprieties of behavior by the refined torture of polished but pitiless sarcasm,—such a teacher lacks the veriest rudiments

of qualification for the delicate work of moulding the manners of youth. On the other hand, the teacher who lacks the graces of behavior and who merely performs the routine work of the class-room, but performs that with conscientious fidelity, is at least laying a foundation on which a superstructure of fine manners can be raised without preliminary demolition of what has been built before. He should do more than this; but even this will give him a substantial title to the respect and gratitude of his pupils in later life. Finally, the teacher who, besides performing with conscientious fidelity his strictly professional duties, carries into all his relations with his pupils the gracious spirit of courtesy, of appreciation, of sympathy, and who, on critical occasions, through the swift contagion of a generous enthusiasm, infuses into them his own moral earnestness,—such a teacher has a power over the morals and manners of youth that is organic and vital, that pierces the outer crust of conventional decorum and penetrates the inner life of the soul.

Again, the teacher who aspires to mould the manners of his pupils must hold his temper under masterful control. The ebullitions of unreasonable anger, the sputterings of uncontrolled fretfulness, the snarlings of self-indulgent petulance,—in short, any of the various manifestations of infirmity of temper into which the disappointing experiences of the class-room may betray the unwary teacher are fatal to success in the work of forming the behavior of youth. Pupils will forgive an occasional loss of patience or lapse of dignity on the part of their teacher, especially if in the main he is candid, sincere, magnanimous, and just; but it is not so easy for them to forget it. They may

love him in spite of his infirmity of temper and may even respect him in part; but they will not, and they should not, unreservedly accept as their guide to perfect manners a teacher who has not acquired the power of self-control. Moreover, the teacher of only average sweetness of disposition, if he would keep his temper unruffled in trying situations, must first be careful to preserve his health. Torpid circulation, deficient appetite, impaired digestion, and disturbed or insufficient sleep too often betray their victim into manifestations of irritability or moroseness; at least they rob him of that elasticity of spirit, that abiding cheer, which is the supreme felicity of personal manners. The ideal teacher therefore will resist the temptations to overwork and strain which beset his calling and will obtain relief for tired brain and nerves in social relaxation and physical exercise. He will not, for the sake of unduly accelerating the progress of his pupils, impose upon himself excessive drudgery in the correction of written papers; he will not, for the sake of gaining money or reputation, yield at the risk of physical strain to the seductions of authorship; he will not, for the sake of enjoying the satisfactions of scholarship, commit the apparently venial, but really unpardonable, sin of defrauding himself of social recreation or of sleep. There are, indeed, but few qualifications in the outfit of a teacher that outweigh scholarship in importance; but there are a few. Among these, the abiding cheer and the unfailing tact and discretion which perfect physical health does so much to develop and foster, if not actually to create, certainly have a place. The teacher who includes superb scholarship among

his qualifications for service is unquestionably an ornament to his profession; but, with schools organized, officered, and supported as they are at present in this country, it must be added that such ornaments are to be accounted luxuries rather than necessities. At all events, the teacher who enriches his scholarship at the expense of his health or who overtasks his physical powers in any other way is doing his pupils an irreparable injury, is squandering that which is not wholly his to squander. Such a teacher will rarely be found prepared for the high function of moulding his pupils to the finer graces of behavior.

Then, too, the teacher who would mould the manners of his pupils must appreciate the responsibilities which his office imposes or, better, the opportunities which it offers. For much depends on the teacher's attitude of mind towards his work. If, in considering the moral aspect of it, he dwells too much on the responsibilities which it imposes, his work is apt to want spring and spontaneity; whereas, if, without ignoring his responsibility, he dwells rather on the richness of his opportunity, his work will have an inspiring quality that will greatly increase its effectiveness. Complete appreciation of the wealth of opportunity that invites the teacher's activity involves a recognition of the needs and the possibilities not merely of the intellectual, but of the moral and spiritual, natures of his pupils. It estimates the results of education not solely by the proficiency acquired in the studies of the curriculum, but also by the strength, purity, and sweetness of character developed through the school training. It eliminates from the standards by which school work is measured everything that

stimulates the pupil to exertion by an appeal to unworthy motives, and aims, instead, to make the spirit embodied in Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty" the animating principle of every effort. It knows that a word of encouragement for earnest though unsuccessful effort and an appreciative recognition of what is good in work that as a whole is imperfect are more wholesome incentives to exertion than the ranking system and more potent refiners of manners than appeals to the spirit of competition.

These are some of the more obvious qualifications needed by the teacher who would undertake the delicate task of forming the manners of youth. I have said nothing of the subtler refinements of character and bearing that go to form the ideal teacher of behavior. That is a phase of the subject which I will not venture to discuss. It will not bear indifferent treatment. You have all read Emerson's essay on "Behavior." "I have seen manners," he says, "that make a similar impression with personal beauty; that give the like exhilaration and refine us like that; and in memorable experiences they are suddenly better than beauty, and make that superfluous and ugly." I never saw Emerson but once, and then his gracious presence exerted just the influence upon me which he here describes. I could wish my children no happier fortune than that of coming daily under the refining influence of such a personality. Daily association with a teacher of such characteristics through the formative period of youth would of itself be a liberal education. But, given a teacher of the requisite qualifications, what shall he teach, and how shall he teach it? As to the elements of behavior which constitute good man-

ners in youth, and which therefore should form the subject-matter of instruction, there would probably be general agreement. Without attempting an exhaustive enumeration, we may say that truthfulness, modesty, and courtesy in the three domains of thought, speech, and action would by general consent be included among them. These elements of behavior, understood in their full meaning, are far-reaching and comprehensive. A volume might be written on the ethical principles which underlie them and the applications to conduct which they suggest. But the literature of this branch of the subject is extensive, excellent, and readily accessible, and for our present purpose a mere enumeration will suffice.

When we attempt to answer the question, How shall the graces of behavior be taught in the schools? we are confronted with one of the most difficult problems that pedagogy has to solve. "I do not think," says Emerson, "that any other than negative rules can be laid down. For positive rules, for suggestion, nature alone inspires it. Who dare assume to guide a youth, a maid, to perfect manners?—the golden mean is so delicate, difficult,—say frankly unattainable. What finest hands would not be clumsy to sketch the genial precepts of the young girl's demeanor? The chances seem infinite against success; and yet success is continually attained. . . Nature lifts her easily, and without knowing it, over these impossibilities, and we are continually surprised with graces and felicities not only unteachable, but undescribable." And yet there are many who believe that the surest way of rendering the schools efficient promoters of good manners in the community is, to make morals and manners a substan-

tive part of the course of study and to assign a definite portion of time per week to formal instruction in them. It is not long since a group of clergymen and philanthropists in the city of Boston seriously set themselves the task of preparing a series of text-books in this department suited to the different grades of public schools.

Now, my personal experience as a teacher has been almost wholly confined to pupils of high school age, and it would ill become me to dogmatize on a subject of this character. It may be that in the lower schools, where the pupils have not yet reached the age of self-consciousness, formal lessons in morals and manners, learned and recited from a text-book, with judicious comment and illustration from the teacher, would be of service. But I doubt it. At any rate, when the pupil has reached the age at which youth begin to be observant of the bearing and manners of others, to be conscious of their own, and to be sensitive to the impression produced by their own personality on members of the opposite sex, the use of a text-book on morals and manners would, it seems to me, be a manifest violation of the laws of nature. If I wished to train a youth whose speech abounded in vulgarisms to the forms of speech and modes of utterance approved by the cultured classes, I should not expect to succeed by putting him through a course of lessons in phonetics. I should place far greater reliance on the silent teaching of refined associations and should do my best to introduce him to good society. If I wished to make a poet of him, I should not instruct him in the details of versification, unfolding to him the mysteries of foot, rhythm, caesura, cadence, and the rest; but should set

him to reading Spenser, Milton, Shakespeare, Browning, Shelley, Tennyson, Wordsworth, and Burns. It is the same in the domain of manners. Bring a youth who has reached the age of self-consciousness, but who has boorish manners, in social contact with cultured ladies and gentlemen, and he becomes at once painfully conscious of his inferiority. Consciousness of inferiority is always the first step towards reclamation from barbarism. The soil of his mind is now prepared to receive the seeds of culture and to offer favorable conditions for their germination. You have only to plant them in this prepared soil and then stand aside and let nature do her perfect work. You will not assist germination and growth by probing, uprooting, resetting, etc. You have done the part of a good gardener in surrounding the young plantlet with favorable conditions for development. Now be patient, and let nature's rain and sunshine do the rest.

To the question, then, How shall the teacher train his pupils to perfect manners? I answer unhesitatingly: Through the silent influence of his personal example. Manners are subtle: they cannot be analyzed, classified, diagrammed, demonstrated, memorized. Hence they are not to be taught like algebra, botany, or parsing. But they can be felt, absorbed, assimilated, reproduced. Hence they can be taught unconsciously by example. Bishop Huntington, in an admirable essay on "Unconscious Tuition," says: "We are taught and we teach by something about us that never goes into language at all. I believe that often this is the very highest kind of teaching, most charged with moral power, most apt to go down among the secret springs of conduct, most effect-

ual for vital issues, for the very reason that it is spiritual in its character, noiseless in its pretensions, and constant in its operations." Again: "The world is full of proof of the power of personal attributes. In most situations—in none more than a school—what a man is tells for vastly more than what he says. Nay, he may say nothing, and there shall be an indescribable inspiration in his simple presence."

Not that there is no room for precept here. Undoubtedly there are some breaches of good manners that call for sharp rebuke, others that are best met by arguments addressed to the reason, others still that suggest an appeal to the pupil's sense of justice, honor, generosity. Such breaches of good manners must be met in the concrete as they arise, the nature of the admonition depending on the character of the offence. Text-book instruction in morals and manners, having nothing to start from but dry statements of moral obligation, would tend to become perfunctory and would savor of what the victims of it call "preaching;" but an earnest utterance, called out by some incident of school life having a moral bearing and aimed directly at the spirit that dictated the act condemned, would be instinct with life and power. The best way of purifying a vitiated taste in literature is, not to declaim against dime novels, but to fill the victim's leisure to the point of saturation with good literature and so purify his taste by the process of displacement. So the most efficient teacher of behavior is he who, when there are no concrete offences against good manners demanding treatment, earnestly devotes himself in the spirit of truthfulness, modesty, and courtesy in the three domains of thought, speech, and action to the

regular work of the school. The teacher who cannot teach the graces of behavior through the silent influence of his personal example will certainly fail in his efforts to teach them from a text-book; while the teacher who daily strives to cultivate the graces of character, that he may the more safely trust the unconscious influence of his example, will as certainly find a text-book superfluous.

As to helpful practical suggestions bearing on this department of the teacher's work, I have but a single observation to make, and that I offer with some diffidence. I shall say nothing of the value of establishing right relations between teacher and pupil at the beginning of the daily session through the exchange of a simple greeting as the pupil passes the teacher's desk on his way to his seat; of the obligation which the teacher is under to lift his hat in recognition of his pupils on the street; of the law of courtesy which requires that the pupil should pass a book to a visitor in the class-room; of the good understanding which results from the tacit assumption on the part of the teacher that the pupil's spirit and motives are good, in the absence of clear evidence to the contrary; or of the many minor observances which are as essential to the social economy of a well-regulated school as to that of a well-regulated drawing-room. Passing over these matters of detail, I shall speak in closing of the use that may be made of the opening exercise.

At the opening of the school session, the minds of the pupils are in an exceptionally receptive state. At this time, not only may the key-note be struck to which the harmonies of the entire session are to be attuned, but impressions may be made which will

have a sensible share in forming permanent character. Our literature is rich, and it is steadily growing richer, in materials that may be utilized, both directly and indirectly, in the interest of the graces of character and behavior. The reading of selections from this literature as a part of the opening exercise at the daily sessions of the school may be so managed that this single feature will determine the spirit that is to dominate the school. The teacher who merely reads, as the school regulations require, a passage from the Scriptures and then, after taking the record of attendance and tardiness, sends out the classes for the first recitation sacrifices, it seems to me, a precious opportunity. I am convinced that it is within the power of the teacher who has charge of a school-room, to create and to sustain precisely the moral tone which he wishes to have prevail, through the character of the morning readings. Growing abuses may be checked at an early stage, observed tendencies towards thoughtlessness or disloyalty may be repressed, high aspirations may be kindled and kept glowing, the sense of duty may be quickened, the love of nature, which ministers to the aesthetic sense and so, indirectly, to the graces of behavior, may be developed and strengthened,—all through the character of the morning readings. For example, at the opening session of the school-year, when the teacher meets his old pupils after a long separation and his new pupils for the first time, he may read to them Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty" or some poem of like content, as an inspiring expression of the high resolve with which the duties of the new school-year should be met. If he wishes to quicken their love of nature, let him read some

fine spring morning Wordsworth's poem on the dancing daffodils, or some crisp morning in October Bryant's "Fringed Gentian," or some cold, bracing morning in winter a passage from Lowell's "A Good Word for Winter." For passages having a direct bearing on manners, there is nothing better than Emerson's essay on "Behavior." Suppose, for instance, the teacher has learned that some of the girls under his care have attracted attention by their loud talking or otherwise obtrusive behavior in the horse-cars on their way to school, what can give a finer point to a few words of earnest admonition than the closing passage of this essay, a part of which I have already quoted. Then, too, from Carlyle's "Essays," from Hamerton's "Intellectual Life," from Hazlitt's "Table Talk," from Charles Kingsley's "Letters and Memoirs," from D'Arcy Thompson's "Day Dreams of a Schoolmaster," from James Freeman Clarke's "Self Culture," from Haweis's "Music and Morals," from Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies," admirable selections may be made. Indeed, one of the satisfactions that reward the teacher for devoting a moderate part of his leisure to miscellaneous reading may well be that of finding fresh material for use at these morning exercises.

These are a few of the many sources from which material may be drawn for the inspiration of pupils. For the teacher himself, I can recommend nothing more profitable than Coleridge's familiar poem beginning:

> O'er wayward childhood wouldst thou hold firm rule,
> And sun thee in the light of happy faces;
> Love, Hope, and Patience, these must be thy graces,
> And in thine own heart let them first keep school.

and ending:

Yet haply there will come a weary day,
When, overtask'd, at length
Both Love and Hope beneath the load give way.
Then with a statue's smile, a statue's strength,
Stands the mute sister Patience, nothing loth,
And, both supporting, does the work of both.

DISCUSSION.

MR. W. F. BRADBURY, Principal of the Cambridge Latin School. He must be a bold man who will venture to discuss any subject after a paper upon that subject by Mr. Tetlow,—he treats a subject so fully, so clearly, so temperately, so judiciously, with such elegant diction, with such distinct enunciation. But variety is the spice of life. Roses have their thorns. It is well after a lofty flight to come nearer the ground and seek a little rest.

Mr. Tetlow is an ideal teacher. His school belongs to the age of the millennium. I confess my feeling of utter unworthiness, of utter insufficiency to play the part of teacher with such an ideal as he sets before us. There can be no better lesson in manners and morals than we have just had. But we cannot all be Tetlows. "If a feeling of personal inferiority is the first step on the road from barbarism," I am just starting on the road. Barnum stands his giant beside his dwarf. Our president also is shrewd. He knows how to fix a program for effect.

Mr. Tetlow's is a girls' school, *all* angels—with wings, *in posse* if not *in esse*. Some of us have boys—and boys are created—well—just a *little* lower than the angels.

To illustrate: A young man of sixteen or seventeen,

under discipline for some offence in school, came to my house with his mother. "Of one thing I am sure," said the mother, "my boy always tells the truth; he never tells lies." "But I do lie, mother," broke in the boy, as though he had been foully maligned. "*All* boys lie. I would n't be such a namby-pamby." What did I do then? Kept perfectly still and let the mother and the boy fight it out on that line. This was a *home* lesson in both manners and morals. *Morals*, Worcester defines as "the practice of the duties of life. Behavior, conduct, manners."

Our children at five or six begin to go to school. At 9 A. M. they must be there, at 12 M. they go home, at 1 P. M. they return, at 4 o'clock they go home again. While in the school-room they must be in order, must be obedient, five or six hours a day, five days in a week, forty weeks in a year, from five to seventeen or eighteen years of age.

What a training for life? If there were nothing else but this *systematic regularity*, this habit of obedience to authority, it would be half the battle.

But home must work with the school. The boy is away from the school, on the average for the year, seven out of every eight hours. Bad morals—bad manners—at home cannot be eradicated in an eighth of the time it takes to engraft them. Even in the classic shades of Cambridge, the home of Harvard, the victors at the base ball game touch up the statue of the founder of that venerable college with red and paint the sacred steps with blasphemous words. There is nothing worse for the training of our boys in manners and morals than the contamination that comes from base ball matches, the betting at boat

races, the brutality of foot-ball. There is no place where smoking and drinking, swearing and cheating, are quicker learned. Our colleges seem to be changing from classics to clubs, from nurseries of wisdom to circuses for the exhibition of pugilism. Four of the defeated crew in the last Harvard and Yale boat-race were reported as falling exhausted in the bottom of the boat, and with difficulty resuscitated. Instead of muscular Christianity—physical health attained through proper gymnastics—this strain is a preparation for heart disease and insanity.

The bad influence runs down from the college through the preparatory and the high schools. I am personally interviewed by a committee from the college athletic association as to whether a certain young man in the Latin School, noted for his skill in base-ball and foot-ball (and for nothing else, unless for inefficiency) is not qualified—or cannot be by extra work—to enter college this fall. And the daily papers and the public all foster the disease; column after column is given up to reports of ball games. Hardly a word is said about the leader in scholarship, about the winners of prizes in classics and mathematics, while the lineage of the highest pitcher is set forth like that of Leonidas in Herodotus.

In my youth I attended one of those small country academies, so common from 1825 to 1850 in the good old commonwealth of Massachusetts. The principal was small of stature, but wonderfully dignified. On the opening day of school, when some hundred young ladies and young gentlemen,—many from the neighboring towns, strangers to one another,—sat before him for the first time, after reading from the Bible,

and after a short prayer, I have known him sit—it seemed to me a half hour—without a word, until a sort of awe had taken possession of every one. It was still as the tomb. An impression was made that was not forgotten. Speech may be silvern; silence is golden.

Emerson says: "Coolness and absence of heat and haste indicate fine qualities. A gentleman makes no noise; a lady is serene."

In modern slang, "An ounce of keep your mouth shut is worth a pound of explanation later." I have known an insolent boy break down and burst into tears when he saw me quietly writing down what he was saying. Absolute thoroughness in teaching is in itself an excellent training in good morals; but a teacher's popularity is likely to be inversely as the square of his thoroughness. When I never hear any complaint of a teacher, I think he must be *superficial.* One who is *full* master of a subject is not satisfied with hearing words—even the correct words. He probes the mind, he pulls down the scantling, and, alas! too often finds that words are merely sounds that hide ignorance. And the pupil who thought he knew or, worse, thought to throw dust is shown up. Now, it isn't human nature to take kindly to one who, Socrates-like (there were those who hated Socrates, you know), shows to you that your words are nonsense; that you *don't* know what you thought you did or tried to appear to know. Socrates's dying advice about his two sons was: "If my sons seem to know what they do not know and think they are something when they are nothing, punish them as I have punished you."

But fashion has something to do with manners. Two or three girls of sixteen to eighteen years of age, from some of the best families in Cambridge, boldly answered me "No," "Yes," without the *sir*. When I remonstrated, one of them told me she was so taught at home. "It was not good *form* to say, Yes, sir; No, sir."

Emerson says: "Moral qualities rule the world; but at short distances the senses are despotic."

In the teaching of manners and morals, it seems to me one of the first things to do in all our cities and larger towns is to establish special schools, to which should be sent the incorrigible,—the few who are contaminating by their bad manners and corrupt morals the better disposed. Your boy and my boy, who are being spoiled by these bad boys, have their rights.

"In the year 1806, it is said that every legitimate monarch in Europe was imbecile. The city would have died out, rotted, and exploded long ago but that it was reënforced from the fields. It is only country which came to town day before yesterday."

As the aristocracy of to-day is made of the merchant or the farmer of yesterday, as the leading men of the city are from the boys of the country, whose manners perchance are rustic,—that is, rough,—so most of our teachers were once country boys. In a club to which I belong, it was found the other night that nearly if not every one had in his early manhood learned a trade. One was a cooper, one a shoemaker, one a blacksmith, one a painter, one a carpenter, one a weaver, one a chair-maker, two or three farmers; nearly every one from the country; several from the back-woods of Maine. They had come up from pov-

erty, worked their way through school and college, and now are the leading teachers and supervisors of Boston and vicinity. Instead of the minimum set by Professor Palmer for each year at Harvard University of ten to twelve hundred dollars, this can be safely set as the maximum for their whole four years' course. In the Cambridge high school, at one time, of five male teachers there were four graduates of Amherst College. These teachers came from the country. How can they be expected to have good manners? Manners? They may lack the city polish, but they have the manners that come from a noble heart and an earnest purpose. They have a strong will, a clear-cut brain. They know the right and dare maintain.

I agree most fully that it is not from books that manners and morals are to be taught. It is the living exemplification in the daily life of a high-minded teacher that will have a lasting effect. He must be healthy. A good teacher, as a good Christian, must have good digestion. He must thoroughly appreciate a good joke and keep his classes in the best of humor. He must illuminate the daily lesson in translation or science by familiar and apt illustrations. He must enforce the points by short and pithy sayings. He must point the moral as it comes in the daily work or conduct of the school. He must be *felt* as one who *knows*,—knows thoroughly the subject he teaches,—who is always perfectly fair, open-hearted, honest, upright, just. It is thus, in my opinion, that manners and morals should be taught in our schools.

Emerson says: "Elegance comes of no breeding, but of birth. It must be *genius* which takes that direction; it must not be courteous, but courtesy. Once

or twice in a lifetime we are permitted to enjoy the charm of noble manners in the presence of a man or woman who have no bar in their nature, but whose character emanates freely in their word and gesture. A beautiful form is better than a beautiful face; a beautiful behavior is better than a beautiful form; it gives a higher pleasure than statues or pictures; it is the finest of fine arts. A man is but a little thing in the midst of the objects of nature, yet by the moral quality radiating from his countenance he may abolish all considerations of magnitude and in his manners equal the majesty of the world."

X.

PATRIOTISM AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

By President E. Benj. Andrews, D. D., LL. D., of Brown University.

All will agree that patriotism is a very important interest, that the public schools can be made greatly to promote it, and that they may of right be employed for this purpose,—nay, ought to be so employed. There is, in fact, special fitness in effort to stimulate patriotism among pupils in these schools. It is part of the business of the public school to make good citizens. Under our theory of government, the public school does not exist for the sake of any man as man, but to complete each pupil's civic character, because without education he cannot be a perfectly safe or useful member of the body politic. Only when this is understood and emphasized, can we defend our school-system from the common charge of being socialistic. Only so can we show a clear right to tax for the purpose of public education. It cannot be too earnestly impressed upon us that our schools exist for a public purpose and that they fail as public schools, save as they subserve this purpose.

The interesting question is: How can such a beneficent result be brought about? Touching more exactly our present discussion, how can the public school instruction, which so many of us are engaged in imparting, be made to minister in the highest degree to

true patriotic sentiment and purpose in our pupils and through them in the great body of our citizens?

We err if we expect to attain this end to any very helpful extent by Fourth of July oratory or by the purchase and raising of flags according to the pleasant fashion now so in vogue. Indeed, while I heartily commend this custom notwithstanding, I fear that there is some danger in our day lest, to many, the United States flag shall become a fetich. As the mere wearing of the cross cannot constitute one a Christian, simply to fly the national emblem over our school-houses will never, by itself, make us staunch devotees of this nation's weal. Not the stars and stripes, but what the stars and stripes stand for,—liberty, union, rights, law, power for good among the nations,—these are the legitimate spurs to our enthusiasm as citizens. And in speaking up for these and for the other exalted attributes of our national character on anniversary days and at other times, we need no hysterical eloquence. The naked truth, soberly told, will do better. The soaring periods, the turgid rhetoric, the pulmonary athleticism with which independence used to be celebrated, but which has now transferred itself mainly to memorial days and to flag-raisings, tell for exceeding little.

Of still less avail is it to inculcate a partisan or a sectional spirit or to try and make boys and girls believe that the life of the nation depends upon the prevalence of this or that petty policy. From all such special pleas, much is to be feared, nothing of value to be hoped.

We have quite too many citizens who identify the good of their party or section with that of the nation

and can find no patriotism in anything which antagonizes their pet views or interests. Holders of national bonds, we notice, are always very patriotic. They wish the nation to live and prosper; and I have heard of those among them that doubted the love of country of other people who urged refunding at a lower rate of interest and the speedy extinction of the national debt altogether.

There are Protestants who would deny Catholics their rights, because blind to the fact that this is not legally any more than it is religiously a Protestant land; and there are Catholics whose zeal for their church would lead them fatally to neglect the public and civic elements in the proper education of their youth.

The socialist is convinced that we are lost unless we accept his system and, although certain that evolution's steps are all that way, spares no effort to help on the process. The anarchist sees no hope unless the state shall disappear utterly. The communist would have us "divide and conquer." Many think that poverty would go and with it all manner of social ills, did we but tax land alone. From all such narrowness, whether its basis be geographical, ecclesiastical, political, or social, "good Lord, deliver us."

Nor do we gain aught by overlooking the vices which fasten upon our politics and upon our distinguished citizens, past or present, or by portraying our country's possibilities or virtues as greater than they are, either absolutely or in comparison with those of other nations, or by belittling or denying the very grave dangers with which our political and social outlook is beset. To deify Jefferson or Franklin or even

Washington is bad. Do not falsify about old Federalists, Democrats, or Whigs, either in the way of slander or in that of idolatry. It will not profit. One hears a great deal of perfervid speech concerning the grandeur of our country and its institutions, which, powerfully as it may build up national self-conceit, can never advance genuine patriotism.

There is not another thoroughly civilized country under the sun whose cities are so badly ruled as ours. There is not another in whose government the laws of political economy and public finance are so little studied or so flagrantly defied. Our methods of taxation are in fact so unreasonable and unjust that, if the people understood their oppressiveness, our government would, I believe, be overthrown in a day, as was the old régime in France. There is not a second country this side of Turkey whose civil service is so corrupt as ours or where special fitness is so little regarded as by us in selections for public office. In no other land upon the planet, is poverty so common or so dire in proportion to national resources. Our system of pensions is costlier in dollars and cents than the very worst of those European military systems which we are so often and so properly bidden to deplore, and its total effect in creating poverty is ten times as bad. Our mail system is far from the best. So of our school organization. So and more also of our electoral arrangements, which happily we have just begun to amend. Let the good work go on! In several other lands, I think, common justice between man and man is surer and speedier than with us.

There are further infelicities which we simply share with other peoples, being no worse off than they.

Here as elsewhere is it in a very sad sense true that the rich are growing richer and the poor poorer: that is, the sills of society, the masses of common people, blest by no special genius, art, craft, or position, but forced to gain their living by the basal industries, count for less and less as the years pass. The conflict between labor and capital, circling the entire horizon with cloud, badly blackens our sky, too, and I do not mark in that cloud aught of tendency to lift.

A portentous danger, peculiar to ourselves as a nation, confronts us in the size of our country and the complexity of our civilization. It seems a strange thing to find, so soon after a four years' civil war which succeeded in preventing the dismemberment of our union, a feeling that it is still uncertain whether these states will permanently continue a single nation. Yet many at this moment share that feeling. We hoped after the war that railways and telegraphs between sections, with the increased mingling of populations and of interests, would henceforth perpetuate in our people that sense of unity which, as history has shown, must characterize the inhabitants of any nation destined to maintain its integrity. This is still the hope, but with many thoughtful men it is little more than hope. The sectional spirit which killed Rome is powerfully at work among us. Hardly ever even before our war was it more manifest than now. The east, the south, the west, the centre, each works for itself as if it were the country. The majority of people in one part have little concern for those elsewhere.

This perilous decentralization in feeling not only coëxists with the legal centralization which might at first be thought likely to counteract it, but it is actually

helped on thereby. Centralization of power in our national arm is in many things advantageous. Our trouble is that in important points where centralization is most desirable, we are in one way and another estopped from carrying it out; while it is most banefully carried out in other directions. The taxing of interstate railways, for instance, ought to be effected by the federal tax machinery, but cannot be without a change in our constitution. On the other hand, the worst inroad upon local self-government yet recorded —a perfectly needless one, moreover—was the ruling of the supreme court in the recent case of Marshal Neagle, who killed Judge Terry in California.[1] Your neighbor is shot dead at your feet. The shooter is arrested, but no sooner is his trial begun than every

[1]Terry was shot on Aug. 14, 1889, at Lathrop, San Joaquin Co., where Justice Field, with Neagle for his body-guard, had stopped for breakfast and was attacked by Terry, who had previously threatened him. No one questions that Neagle did right and acted legally in killing Terry. The problem is whether to justify him by state or United States law. He was removed from the sheriff's custody on a writ of *habeas corpus*, and set free without jury trial, on the ground that, as the Attorney-General of the United States, acting for the President, who is charged by the constitution to execute the laws, had ordered him to protect Justice Field, he did the killing in obedience to the laws of the United States. If so, of course, no state authority had any right to detain him therefor. I believe that most lawyers regard the decision of our higher court in this case a violent widening in force of the phrase "United States law." Had the affair occurred in Massachusetts or New York, or had Terry been a less influential desperado, the case would in all likelihood have been left to state courts and process. It seems to be a new instance of judge-made law, and an unfortunate one. The writer of this note repudiates the old doctrine of the Democratic party, that the powers of the general government ought to be construed in the narrowest possible way. They should be interpreted liberally. But to transfer judgment upon such a crime as homicide from state to United States tribunals is a very serious matter. See Cunningham, Sheriff, v. Neagle, Supreme Court Reporter, Vol. 10, No. 25, pp. 658 *seq.*

wheel of local justice is stopped by the simple notice that the shot was delivered in obedience to orders from Washington. The fact that in this instance essential justice was done does not deprive the case of its enormity. Sometime it will be otherwise, at least in the public opinion of a dozen states. The justice of the vicinage, that fine old feature of Anglo-Saxon law, will then be felt to have vanished; and it will be a wonder if some new Jeroboam shall not raise the cry,—"What portion have we in David? To your tents, O Israel!"

As in the disruption of Rome, so always: when the central authority of a vast empire, encroaching little by little upon dear local prerogatives, grown bolder and rougher, too, through its might and its immunity, comes to make itself felt in the remoter sections in a hard and unsympathetic way, people begin to feel toward it as toward a foreign power, and you soon have the best sort of a foundation for a civil war or an attempt at revolution.

Pardon so long discourse upon this sombre side of our affairs. What I wished to come at is this: that it is of no use to keep on ignoring or extenuating these national diseases and dangers. It would be far better to tell the truth about them in any event, as we cannot permanently keep up the illusion. It is immensely better, in view of the fact that such falsity distracts alike our own thought and that of our pupils from the most cogent reasons for insisting upon patriotism.

Peace needs its love of country as well as war. The honesty which shall recognize the ills that threaten us, the courage to fight them, the eternal vigilance which is the price of liberty, the dogged patience re-

quired to hunt out of office the political trickster, the zeal to bestir oneself early and late, in the face of apathy and contumely, in order to get faithful and competent men elected to office, these are quite as needful as the bravery which sends men to the battlefield, and they are infinitely harder to find.

How, then, shall we best promote patriotism in our public schools and through them in the state? Before following up this inquiry in a more positive way, it is necessary to remark that patriotism is of various kinds. Much patriotism is simply practical or interested regard for one's country, springing from more or less selfish considerations. Mere bond-holder patriotism will illustrate. Another variety is sentimental patriotism, like that of Leonidas and his three hundred, in which, owing to persistent education and association, country has come to stand before the patriot's soul as the veritable chief good, to be fought for to the death, if need be, he knows not why. And there is, thirdly, rational patriotism, like that of Washington, Franklin, and Madison, which is part of general philanthropy, a love of one's country, begotten of the reasoned conviction that such country has been called by the Power above to an eminent rôle in the upward evolution of humanity.

These different patriotisms are all good. Interested patriotism itself is better than none. English public financiers argue for perpetuating the British national debt on the ground that in case of war or rebellion its holders would rally with all their influence and resources to save the state. Now, bad as it would be for any number of us to have that sort of public spirit and no other, all citizens, the most unselfish with the

rest, share and must share to an extent that low form of zeal for the state. Such an affection need not and could not be wholly wanting in any commonwealth, however insignificant, unstoried, and ignoble. The Portuguese might possess it as well as the Englishman; the Norwegian as truly as the German. Patriotism of this kind needs less cultivation than the choicer varieties, yet, as it is a useful and indispensable quality in its place, it should, like the brute instinct of self-preservation, be fostered so far as it stands in the way of nothing nobler than itself.

But, mark it well, this is not the patriotism that begets heroes. It is not the kind that a nation can depend upon in the hour of mortal peril. The higher varieties are then imperatively needed, the kinds which do not spring up or flourish spontaneously. How can these diviner species of patriotism be had? How are they to be kept ever present, strong, and vigorous in the republic?

I answer, that neither the patriotism of Leonidas nor that of Washington can be made to germinate in the human breast on simple notification. Neither comes as the mere result of teaching. There must be in the character of the country a basis for the teaching. Exhort me as you may, I cannot permanently and at a cost to myself be an enthusiast for my country unless it is worthy of my enthusiasm. Lofty, almighty love can be steadily evoked only for that country which can, and that in some moral sense, either boast a great past, or exhibit a great present, or promise a great future, or two or all of these at once.

Whatever we can do to perfect the schools will of course tend to make those who go forth from them

thankful, if not enthusiastic, citizens. The school, we have seen, is an agency of the state. Every pupil, with more or less clearness, so understands. Make the blessing of his school days as rich and as colossal as you can. Give him reason to remember his schooling with gratitude, and to remember it forever. Crowd good things upon him,—recognition as your peer, uniformly kind treatment, the power of noble examples, the best of teaching. The good thus done to pupils they will always tend to ascribe to the state. But the gratitude hence arising will be about equally strong whatever rank the nation in question holds. It will conduce to patriotism, but will not of itself engender high patriotism.

Again, schools can do a great deal for common patriotism by more and better lessons touching the theory, the facts, and the duties of civil life. Instruction in the rudiments of political and social science ought to begin in the primary schools, as soon as scholars can read well, and it ought never to cease till they graduate. As to theory, we might well insist more than has yet been done that government is a necessary good, not a necessary evil. Infinite misconception still prevails upon this point. How can children, or men either, be radical patriots, thinking of the state so meanly as many do and as our fathers of the revolutionary epoch quite unanimously did! Evils gather about our political life, of course, and they are not at all to be excused because associated with what is so vitally essential. But accursed indeed must be the state, if such a state can be imagined, which would not be infinitely superior to anarchy. Not a man among us duly appreciates the daily, hourly, perpetual

blessings derived and to be derived from the civil order about him. As to facts, we ought in our public school instruction to dwell more on the history of liberty, in early and modern times, as well as upon the slow growth and the cost of liberty. And touching duties, we might point out not only the obligatoriness of activity in politics, but the possibility and the duty of honest participation in political office. Very many of our fellow-citizens cannot fully discharge their calling in relation to the state simply by regular and honest voting. They must hold office. A political career should be looked upon as something to be openly sought and aspired to by any properly qualified man,—not as a gift, gratuity, or honor from political friends. It ought to be no disgrace for the man to seek the office, provided he is the proper man. It should be an honor, rather.

Such lessons would do great good—the same among American youth as in any other civilized land, say France, Chili, or Portugal.

Were we to stop here, however, we should have done little to build patriotism of the higher orders. If, without supplying this lack, we should try to rally our pupils to truly splendid patriotism, they would turn upon us with the demand to be shown something splendidly inspiring about the American republic,—its history, its present life, its outlook. Thank Heaven, we should have a long and eloquent story to recite. Without exaggeration, I am sure, we could tell what would fire every ingenuous young heart, about the proud career of free government in this our land, the rise of the United States into a single political power, the Revolutionary war, and the creation, the adoption,

the strengthening, and the preservation of our federal constitution. With still better warrant and effect might we dilate upon our country's work in growing the noblest manhood yet seen, in educating Europe to a belief in free institutions, in demonstrating that a republic can conduct both war and finance with sobriety and vigor, and in literally creating many of the most humane and valuable parts of modern international law. Then, sweeping down into the present, one could asseverate, in all truth and soberness, that in spite of whatever stains and assoils our politics, and of the massed poison from Europe which infects our population, the popular heart is still sound, the common will, like the will of God, slowly and patiently, but with awful vigor, making for righteousness.

So strong a plea could any one of us urge for great patriotism in our pupils, and it would be a strong plea indeed. Further, believe me, it would avail much. And yet, somewhat would be lacking after we had said all that. The pupil would still rejoin: My life is mainly in the future. If I am to devote myself to my country after the example of Leonidas or Washington, tell me not only of its past and of its present but particularly of its future. Will our beloved America continue to tread the exalted road which has witnessed her career thus far, or is she one day to halt in her mighty march and then droop and perish like all the republics before her?

In face of that question we should, of course, if thoroughly temperate and discreet, somewhat lower our tone and fall to speaking of hopes and beliefs. But the final motive for supreme patriotism can be present only in proportion to one's *assurance* of the

nation's perpetual grandeur. Let me be convinced, let me even suspect, that the republic of my love has had its day and is soon to be numbered with Athens, Rome, Venice, and the rest, I cannot present you the virile patriotism which after all my conscience calls upon me to render.

My hope of this country's perpetuity is immensely strong, as strong as it can possibly be and not transcend its character as hope; but hope at best lacks the red color of ripened certitude. This last, crucial condition to high patriotism, consisting in assurance that the republic is to live forever, it devolves upon the schools of America largely to create, by making the nation worthy of a permanent career. The nation will live if it deserves to live. The fittest will survive. If, as "humanity sweeps onward," we as a nation can offer it the proper vehicle, the Eternal Spirit will never dismiss us from His service.

Here then is the crowning work of our schools in aid of patriotism: to make this already worthy nation worthier still. On the schools of this land, high and low, depends in eminent degree the question of its eternal life. In conjunction with the church, they must see to it that righteousness abounds more and more among the people. Out of them in great part must come that spiritual life which shall quench our huckstering temper, shame into the abyss our base politics, and broaden our thought from sectional to national themes. The schools must grow the public men with inspiring policies, who shall dare to speak again of the divine mission of America.

With what relief, with what applause, should we not receive him, were God pleased once more to turn

out a true statesman within our borders, insisting, prophet-like, upon our national duties,—duties to the rest of this continent, duties to the world!

I believe to be true Sir Charles Dilke's remark in his "Problems of Greater Britain" that either Chinese, Russian, or Anglo-Saxon civilization is to become predominant upon the globe. Whether or not it shall be the Saxon, we, rather than England, must answer; for upon us remains more of the dew of our youth. We are not only fresher, we are freer, more inventive, and tied by living bonds to nearly every other nationality on earth.

America must lead in the future civilization of our race. God has, I believe, this lasting and glorious mission for the great American republic, but we must prove ourselves worthy of it. The dream of Mr. Blaine and the dream of Mr. Butterfield will some day be realized. More than this, not always will that morbid notion of earlier Americanism control us, that we are perpetually to keep aloof from the affairs of the Old World. Why should we thus refrain? Wherein is it fitting that the fate of weaker nations and races, in Africa, in Asia, and in the islands of the sea, should forever continue to be decided by Germany, Russia, Great Britain, France, and Italy, lands of a civilization confessedly less ethical than ours? Have our matchless fortunes and power been given us for naught? Nay; *noblesse oblige:* our privilege puts us under bond to help the weaker. Where is the prophet-statesman—the Mohammed or the Savonarola—who shall affectingly expound to us our national calling? The schools of America must raise him up.

DISCUSSION.

His Excellency Hon. John W. Davis, Governor of Rhode Island. Mr. President, Teachers, and Friends: I appear here to-night in response to your courtesy,—which to me has been more than kindness,—to testify by my presence, and, with no thought that anything which I can say will add weight to the great interest our state of Rhode Island has in the earnest purpose of this Institute and the professional calling of its memmers.

Public Education: what is it, and what should it be?

I apprehend that it should not attempt too great a multiplicity of literary attainments, but should cultivate an intelligent appreciation of the good and the evil spread broadcast in the world about us. Public education, however it may be conducted, should have for its aim and object that appreciative discretion which we call wisdom, leading us to accept the right and reject the wrong, to the end that we may become good citizens, true to the state and to ourselves. Public education is an estate, a commonwealth, which should be open and free as the sunlight to all mankind; for whatever profits man individually profits the community.

We have estates real of permanent property, and estates personal of convertible property; but more than either of these and manifolding the value of both, is that commonwealth of learning, without which, as is seen in savage life, all other estates fade and sink from sight. It has been said of the printer's art, that it is the "art preservative of arts." So, with more certainty, it may be said of education: it is the estate salvator of all others, the *summum bonum* of all.

In view of these accepted facts, what is the duty of the state to the schools and what does patriotism command it to do in their regard? First, we answer, it is the duty of the state to perpetuate the light of the present to future generations; and in no way can this better be done than by the education of the whole people, "by the people, and for the people." To those who object that public education begets dependence upon the state, in place of that strong self-reliance which we all admire, we proudly and patriotically reply, that we, the people, are the state; and it were as reasonable to think our confessed dependence upon the Giver of all Good a degradation to us, as to so think of public education.

Mankind is constituted for society, and is amenable to social law; and only they who appreciate social obligations fulfil the measure of their destiny. Self-preservation is not more surely a law of our individual nature, than a necessity to communities; and education is the principal factor of its true strength.

Patriotism and power are not measured by areas or numbers, but by the intelligence and energy of master-minds, to whom learning officiates as prime minister. History and the present status of mankind testify to the truth of this proposition. Hence, they who would see liberty, with power and wisdom, survive to their posterity must educate not only their own children, but all the children of the people; for, as Senator Patterson so well said here the other evening, "liberty with learning only is safe." And he might well have added, "tyranny and wrong, like weeds of the field, come for want of cultivation."

As has been intimated by the learned speaker who

has preceded me, patriotism is not best manifested by spreading the great American eagle, nor by too much waving of the star-spangled banner, how much soever we may love our chosen emblems. Although I would differ with him in ascribing greater value and influence to the symbols of religion, than to the emblems of patriotism, it is what these symbols inculcate that I prize most of all. The best exemplification is seen in the vindication, through our public schools, of the rights of all men to their full measure of the common heritage of happiness provided by Providence for all God's children to enjoy. Education, while like both real and personal estate in permanence and convertibility, is unlike either, in that it cannot come by endowment or inheritance. It has pleased Him whose thoughts are creatures animate to confer His benefits npon us at a price commensurate with their worth. Learning is no exception to the rule, for this each of us must earn for himself.

It is a duty of the state to afford an opportunity to all to attain a degree of learning commensurate with their surrounding necessities; and public teachers are the executors for the state, in trust, of this great opportunity and laden with its great responsibility. It is not for me to attempt to discuss or illustrate what has here been so conclusively demonstrated, the duty of the state to the coming generation of manhood and womanhood. Suffice it to say, that, whether man makes his opportunities or opportunities make the man, it is equally a patriotic duty to make the most of those opportunities.

Again thanking you, Mr. President, for especial kindness to me and your great labor for the welfare of

our own state and country, I can most conscientiously assure you that your patriotic services as a public educator, as also those of your confrères, are appreciated in this year of grace through the length and breadth of the land.

Mr. Arthur L. Goodrich, Principal of Salem (Mass.) High School. I wish to speak one word of personal experience, and will name one of the difficulties teachers are likely to meet in their efforts to introduce matters relating to our government before the school boards of our cities and towns. A Salem man, busy as a June beetle, possessed much influence, but had also extraordinary ignorance. A few years ago, I undertook to introduce this branch of governmental science into my school. He told me that he did not want civics taught, nor the Constitution of the United States either. After the boys got out of the school, he would teach them those matters. Are these boys, I asked myself, to go out and be instructed by this man, and those like him, in citizenship? I resolved to the contrary: I would teach them. There are plenty of men in city halls and city governments who don't want things of this kind taught. The ward caucus is their school of civics. These men are our stumbling blocks. Teachers, however, have a duty to do and should keep themselves well informed on all the questions of the day. When we introduced our course, after a while, we did not advertise it as a course in civics. We combined it with United States History. We asked the pupils to bring old histories; they brought two of one kind, six of another, and the committee gave us ten copies of different kinds. We

took the subjects up topically. A public library was just then established. We made use of that. We made an all-round study of the subject. The plan succeeded, and this is the way we had to meet the obstacles of ignorance and prejudice.

HON. JAMES W. PATTERSON.—I am sure we all feel grateful for the able and patriotic words to which we have listened this evening. With most that has been said I heartily concur. It has seemed to me, however, that a little more sunshine might be thrown into the picture with profit.

That there is corruption in public and business life in our day as there has been in every age, and as there was certainly in the earlier administrations of our own government, is true, but to clothe all our utterances in mourning on that account will do no good. It has become the prevalent fashion to accuse public men, who are at the front and in the way of some unprincipled demagogue, of tricks and crimes for which they would loathe themselves if guilty. Let us punish crime when proved, for the sake of justice and the public welfare, but out of regard for the good name of the republic, and the rights of private character, let us not fill our addresses and our papers with charges of corruption that have no real existence. It will be far better to extol the virtues of the country in our orations and decorations.

There has been, it is true, on the Fourth of July and other occasions, a good deal of inflated oratory that had very little of the American eagle in it but his feathers. This has been a violation of good taste rather than of good morals, and has been an unavoid-

able evil. Shall we for this refuse to praise our brave boys who went to the front in a time of public peril and saved the integrity of the republic and the authority of its constitution? No! Plant the flag upon their graves, and raise it above the institutions they rescued from destruction. At the siege of Fort Donelson a flag-bearer was shot down, and a comrade leaped into his place and bore the banner aloft. He, too, was struck down and the staff was shattered, but a third brave man seized the falling flag, and, wrapping the stars and stripes about his body, sprang to the front. He, too, was shot down and lay dead in the old banner as his winding-sheet. Brave defenders of the flag! God bless their memory! Let us raise the blood-stained emblem above our ships, that it may speak on every sea of the power and spread of liberty. Let us raise it above our court-houses, that it may teach the children that law is the source of justice and liberty. Let us raise it above our school-houses, that each generation may learn that intelligence is the basis of national power and prosperity, and that patriotism may be perpetuated in the republic.

We are too little familiar with our national history. At the close of the Revolution our factories were silent, our commerce driven from the sea, and our agricultural products barely fed our people. We have since carried four wars to a successful issue, and after paying all debts have wealth enough left to buy up half a dozen of the monarchies and kingdoms of the old world. In a century of free government we have risen from thirteen comparatively feeble colonies to forty-four states, full of schools, churches, industries, and all other elements of national wealth and power,—a country imperial in dimensions and yet free.

Teach the children this, and teach them, too, that this same country has produced the grandest characters of any age or nation. What are the public schools for if not for self-defence? Intelligence is as necessary to national protection as armies. No one shall say that the public schools must not exist. A knowledge of science, art, literature, and public history is the source of national power, enterprise, and prosperity. Our record should be made an unfailing spring of patriotism to the young. Gettysburg, on the page of history, is more glorious than Waterloo. The struggles and sacrifices on that field of Gettysburg tell a grander story of a nation's spirit than the obstinacy of the English at Waterloo. Unroll the scroll of political progress. Let them study English history, beginning at the time when the barons wrested the Magna Charta from King John at Runnymede, and follow down to our own governments and laws. Let them reflect upon the extent and resources of our country. The American desert, if irrigated, might feed the whole population of Europe. The English-speaking people to-day rule one fourth the population of the world. If, as they grow in numbers, they increase in intelligence and virtue, they may go on conquering in the name of liberty, happiness, and religion.